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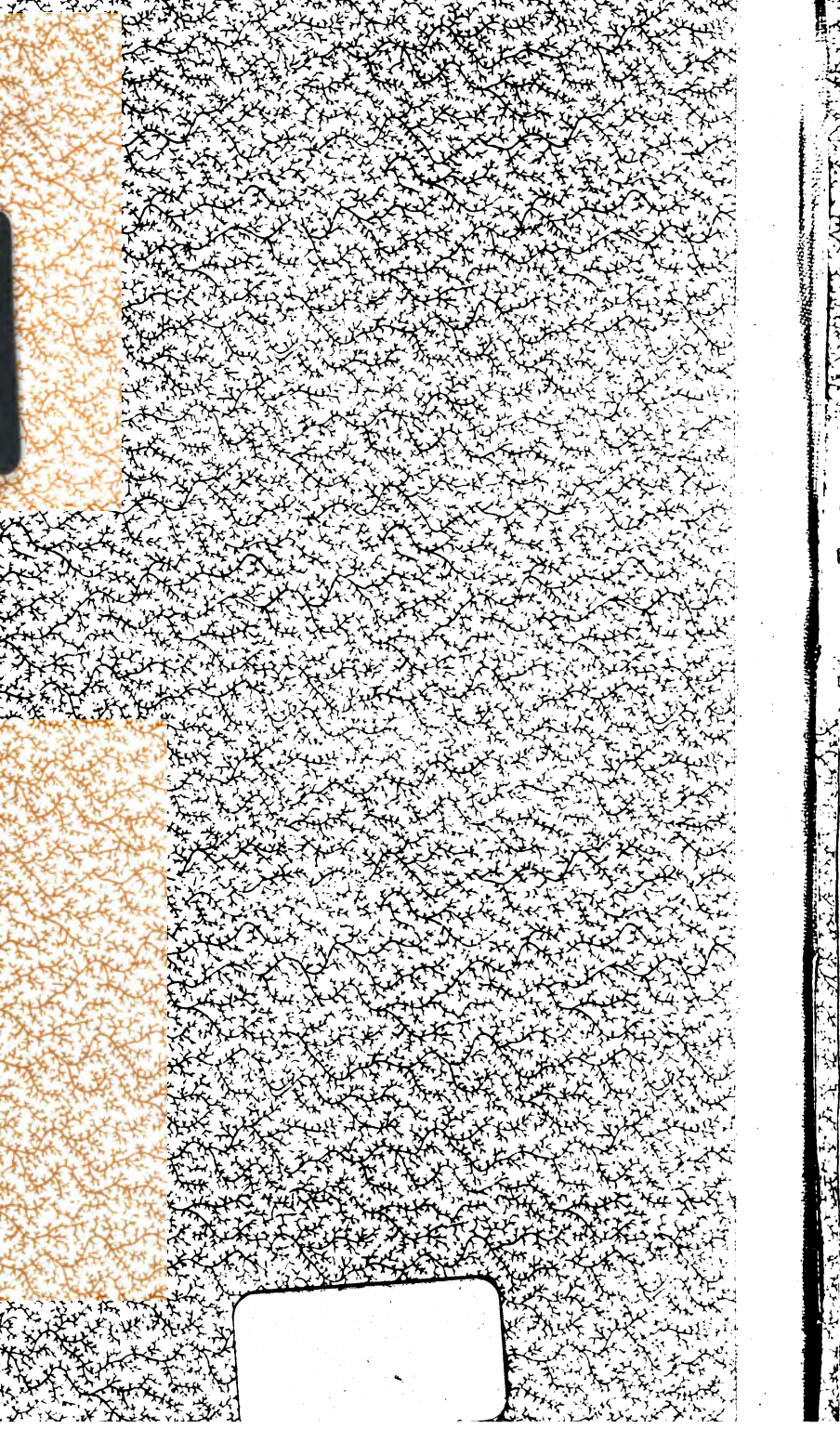
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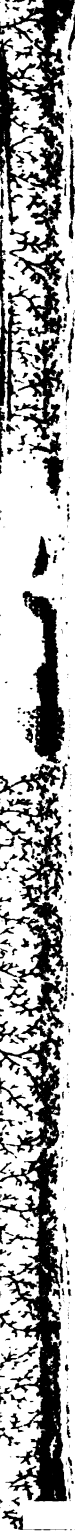
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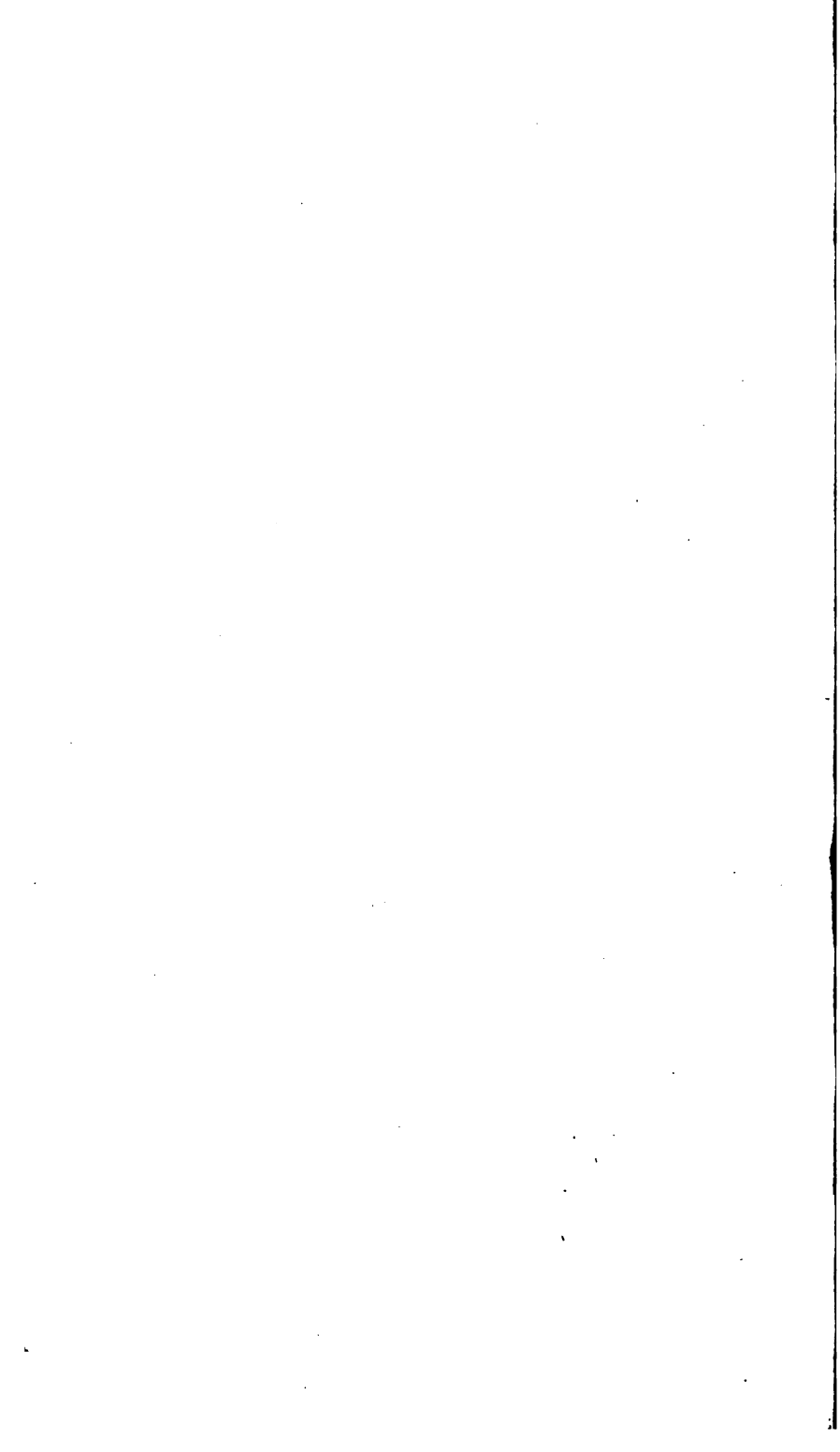
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THE  
CRITICAL REVIEW:  
OR,  
Annals of Literature.

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BY  
A SOCIETY of GENTLEMEN.

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VOLUME the FIFTY-NINTH.

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——— *Nothing extenuate,  
Nor set down aught in malice.* SHAKSPEARE.

*Plorare furi non respondere favorem  
Speratum meritis*——— HOR.

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L O N D O N, .  
Printed for A. HAMILTON, in Falcon-Court, Fleet-street.  
MDCCLXXXV.

ROY W. J. J.  
J. J. J.  
J. J. J.

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# THE CRITICAL REVIEW.

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For JANUARY, 1785.

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*Observations on the Animal Oeconomy, and on the Causes and Cure of Diseases. By John Gardiner, M. D. President of the Royal College of Physicians, and Fellow of the Royal Society, of Edinburgh. 8vo. 6s. Longman.*

**A**uthors have different objects in view, when they publish either their sentiments or observations. The young are impelled by a desire of fame; the elder are pleased with assuming the oracular dignity, and claiming the attention due to age, rank, or character. The diffident, in a modest form, propose their doubts and difficulties, in hopes of instruction; the vain and the confident to silence impertinent pretenders, by a display of their own amazing acquisitions. But these, and the various other causes which are either slightly hinted at, or ostentatiously explained, by different writers, seem to have had little effect on our author, whose rank, as president of a respectable college, leads us to form considerable expectations. The little novelty in some parts of his work, the obscure and imperfect explanations in others, are neither consistent with the usual ambition of an author, nor worthy of Dr. Gardiner's character and situation. If he thinks his observations generally new, we lament the limited extent of his knowledge; if he has aimed at rendering them highly useful, we regret his disappointment. In his preface, the president seems to think, that one cause of the slow progress of knowledge arises from a luxuriancy of fancy, and a liveliness of imagination, which induces authors to build systems on 'superficial and unstable foundations.' Indeed, from various expressions, 'misleading the inexperienced student,' 'acute, but false manner of reasoning,' 'theoretical disquisitions of novelty and ingenuity,' he seems to aim his shafts at the present professor of the practice of physic. Is it not otherwise strange that, in discussions on the living principle, and in condemning the conduct of former nosologists, he should not have once mentioned Dr. Cullen, except as the author of

some experiments on the cold produced by evaporation? It is much more so, if it be found that he had scarcely considered the professor's works on these subjects. His theory of fevers, and his remarks on the arrangement of the bilious remittents, are striking proofs of Dr. Gardiner's inattention, either to the First Lines, or the Synopsis Nosologizæ. But it is not our business to ascertain the respective property of each author: we must give an account of the contents, and our opinion of the execution of the work before us; but, as we shall have occasion to mention our author's mistakes, we could not avoid this instance of his want of candour.

Dr. Gardiner introduces this volume with some remarks on the vital principle, and the organs by which it is conveyed. In the relation of facts, he is generally exact; but his reasoning is generally defective; and through the whole, the living principle, the principle of life, and life itself, are so frequently confounded, that the plainest subject is obscured. 'From the living principle,' he tells us, in one passage, 'diffused through the *solids* and *fluids*, that principle of life, which is coeval with the animalcula in *femine*, arises. But, though as many exceptions may be made to this sentence as it contains words, yet, in another place our author tells us, that the action of the heart is the *first vital motion*; and that heat, which is inseparable from animal life, is not found in an egg, previous to incubation, or soon lost. In this part, we have not observed a single new fact, or any remark, which we can transcribe, with a view either to the entertainment or advantage of the reader. The observations on Dr. Crawford's Theory of Animal Heat have been again and again printed; and our author's own system is so imperfect, as scarcely to deserve the name. In fact, it consists chiefly of some of the circumstances which influence the heat of animals, and refers the whole to the living principle. The intelligent reader will recollect various authors, who have already made equal advances; and, in most of them, he will find the several facts more perfectly and advantageously detailed.

Dr. Gardiner's language is rendered very obscure by the frequent use of the term stimulus. We understand the word when applied to food, heat, aromatics, and some kind of medicine; but, when applied to opium, and to cold, we expected a nice distinction, and began to apprehend a poison concealed under the apparently wholesome aliment; to fear, from this enemy to theoretical disquisitions, of novelty and ingenuity, something which resembled a direct and an indirect stimulus. But, after wandering in uncertainty, without the smallest glimmering of a meaning, through two-thirds of his nervous physiology, we find that stimulus is only a change effected

effected in the state of the nerves, by the intervention of any power whatever. We will not however dwell on defects, where the discussion cannot be rendered advantageous. On the subjects which follow, we may at least expect something more interesting; but we must necessarily observe, that the execution seldom deserves a better character.

The president has endeavoured to give the outline of a new system of fevers, which, as we have read with more than common attention, we shall endeavour briefly to analyse. Fevers are derived from cold, from miasma, and contagion, or from inoculation. Fever from cold, though not the simplest, is yet the most common and obvious, form. It does not arise, in our author's opinion, from the stoppage of perspiration, but from the stimulus of cold on the nerves of the surface. This change is, by sympathy, conveyed to the glands of the bronchiæ and stomach, so as to vitiate their secretions, and produce the several disorders of these organs. Consequently, though there be a *materies morbi*, it is not originally received *ab extra*, but formed within the body; and, though its evacuation may become of consequence in the progress of the disease, yet its very existence may be prevented in the commencement. In the second kind, the fever is produced by a specific cause, viz. the miasma and contagion: the tendency of the first, is to produce the remittent fever; of the second, the jail and hospital fever. In both instances the poison, by its being blended with the air, is conveyed to the saliva, and, with it, swallowed into the stomach. The remittent tendency of the miasma is sometimes lessened by its being combined with cold, which causes fevers of a more continued form; but the combination of cold is not so distinctly perceived when it occurs with contagion. Dr. Gardiner seems to hint, that the miasma is less noxious, in its effects, than the contagion; and that the difference, in the fevers produced, is owing to the comparative mildness only. He does not expressly say whether the contagion may be produced by a number crowded together, without the assistance of any poison originally derived from the marsh effluvia. The third mode of infection by inoculation is well known.

If there be any novelty in this system, it is in the cause of fevers by cold; though we think that the origin even of this opinion might be detected, if the crude ideas of every system-builder could be easily retained. But the corner-stone fails, and that is sufficient for the destruction of the building. The chief and almost only argument to destroy the common opinion, that colds arise from a suppression of perspiration, is Keil's aphorism, that perspiration is *not* suppressed in catarrhs.

He means, and can *only mean*, that as much weight is insensibly lost during the continuance of the complaint, as in an equal period of health; for he had no method of ascertaining the comparative evacuation of the skin and lungs. But the common systems always suppose that the loss of one evacuation is supplied by the other. We are ashamed of such trifling; but, when presidents of colleges become authors, their rank demands our particular attention. Some indeed might expect to find, in a new theory, the connection between the remote and proximate cause, and again, between that and the symptoms; but our author is silent on the subject. The change produced by cold is slightly passed over; the shivering and rigour are scarcely mentioned; and, though Hoffman is quoted, even his spasms periphericus is overlooked. Our author seems to walk in fear: he looks with horror on either side; for, while he avoids 'debility,' by the general term of 'change,' he is always in danger of falling into 'spasm.' Words have indeed little power; and Dr. Gardiner is not aware, that his Theory very much resembles, in this imperfect outline, the more finished picture of Dr. Cullen. In the former part, he has inadvertently dropped the 'excitement of the brain,' which is a much more exceptionable term than either debility or spasm.

In the practice of our author, we meet with little that is remarkable. In general, it is sufficiently accurate and just: we shall only mention one circumstance, since it is the consequence of his theory. In the means of preventing fevers from miasmata, he strongly recommends an emetic, because the matter has been taken into the stomach, but overlooks the use of a blister, which Dr. Lind, from whom he has copiously borrowed, thinks equally necessary. This remedy had no connection with his general system.

We have preferred a general analysis to extracts, from Dr. Gardiner's work, that we might have room for one that may appear more interesting. Physicians have regretted that sir John Pringle locked up his annotations in the hands of the college; but the president has partly unlocked the door: we have a peep only at the treasure; though, if it be a just specimen, our regret will be diminished. Many of the extracts are very trifling; and unless under the sanction of a great name, would not be attended to. We are told, for instance, that Dr. James allowed his fever-powders to be chiefly useful as evacuants; he has repeatedly told us the same. Dr. Huxham and sir John Pringle cured chronic agues by laxatives; Senac has already strongly insisted on the necessity of a similar plan. Mr. Sutton told sir John, that the day after

inoculation, a needle dipped in the puncture, would communicate the disease; a proof, says Dr. Gardiner, that the matter first acts as a topical ferment: but this has been the opinion of almost every practitioner since the publications of baron Dimsdale. The following extract is more useful.

‘ Dr. Saunders (formerly Huck), whose correspondence with sir John Pringle forms a considerable and valuable part of the above annotations, and who, in his observations on the nature and cure of diseases, discovers an uncommon sagacity, informs sir John, in one of his letters from the West Indies, “that he had observed a relation between the bilious, yellow, and intermitting fevers, apt to double, and the bloody flux, for they were distempers which prevailed at the same time, and very often changed one into the other, at least, in the West Indies.” And Dr. Turnbull, late physician to the factory at Smyrna, informed sir John Pringle, “that the epidemic fever at Smyrna, of a bilious, putrid, or malignant nature, begins towards the end of August. They have the same at Constantinople, but milder, and approaching more to the nature of a regular intermittent. At Smyrna, this fever remits at first, but, if left to nature itself, ends in a continued fever. The paroxysms begin in the evening, and early in the morning there is a remission with a little sweat. The first paroxysm begins with a pain in the back and rigour, but afterwards none of the accessions begin with any cold fit;” and farther observed, that the description sir John had given of the autumnal bilious, remitting, and intermitting fevers of the camp, and that of marshy countries, answered nearly to theirs of Smyrna. He added, “that the distemper disappeared generally about the end of September, but sometimes ran into October, and by that means continued about two months. In some cases the fever began in a tertian form, but more generally in a quotidian; and, if no proper means were used, they all ended in a continued fever. The duration of each incidental case is uncertain, there being no critical days. Some grow yellow about the fifth or sixth day, and that is accounted a very bad sign, as are worms, and the coming on of the fever with a vomiting of a greenish or yellowish bile. If the usual vomit of emetic tartar, in the advanced stage of the disease, has no effect, it is a mortal sign. In this fever the hypochondria are commonly inflated, and an uneasiness is felt by the patient when they are pressed. The cure of this fever was chiefly effected by such medicines as cleared the primæ viæ, as tartar emetic, laxatives, and clysters. When the fever remits, the cure is carried on by the bark in the following manner: R mellis ʒi, camphoræ ʒi, simul probe terantur ad solutionem camphoræ, dein adde cort. Peruv. pulv. ʒi. m. f. massa, et e singulis drachmis formentur pilulæ N<sup>o</sup>. xv. capiat æger omni bihorio, remittente febre, pil. x. If the patient had time to

take fifty such pills before the accession of the next paroxysm; it was always an easier one than any of the preceding; but if he could, in that space, take one hundred pills, the fit never returned. When there was a more than ordinary disposition to putrefaction, and the pulse was low, he doubled the quantity of camphire, and with a good effect. He seldom had occasion to use more than one ounce of the bark, or an ounce and a half: he cured common intermittents in the same way. The eating of meat or fish was apt to bring on a relapse with the convalescents.

These authorities are undoubtedly respectable; but they almost vanish into nothing, when compared with the numerous observations, in different situations and very distant periods, which converge to the same point. Many of these are collected by Dr. Cullen, in his *Synopsis Nosologiae*.

Though we cannot recommend this work in general, yet, in the practical part, we find some exact descriptions of diseases, and observations which, though common, are useful. The diseases particularly described are catarrhs, catarrhal fevers, cholera, the bilious remittents, and the more genuine intermittents.

*Medical Cases, with Occasional Remarks. By R. W. Stack, of Bath, M. D. 8vo. 2s. Johnson.*

**T**HIS little collection will be highly useful to the practitioner who wishes to improve his art: the descriptions are seemingly faithful; and the practice is judicious. But we apprehend Dr. Stack attributes too much to his medicines, and sometimes to the reputed causes. The changes happen so often on those days which are usually distinguished by a salutary termination, that we are led to attribute a great share of the cure to the exertions of nature alone.

The kermes mineral, which is greatly recommended by our author, we know to be a very valuable remedy; and we have trusted it with advantage. Yet in the case, which Dr. Stack describes, the expectoration came *on the fifth day*, though in apparently desperate circumstances. It is however probable, that his judicious treatment had a great share in the event. The next case is a relation of what seemed to be nephritic symptoms, arising from a sour stomach. In all nephritic cases, the stomach is affected; and the sympathy may be reciprocal: in this the return was constantly relieved by a vomit. The third is an instance of the bad effects of suddenly checking a bleeding from the nose. Indeed, the officious interference of medicine is in no case so injurious as in stopping an evacuation:



ation: the most careful attention cannot always discern, when it becomes necessary to check any discharge. In the same patient, a little blood, trickling down into the stomach, during sleep, caused the most alarming symptoms. We shall select a very just and useful practical distinction.

I think I do not err in saying, that long silent inspirations, and short sonorous expirations, may be considered, pretty generally, as distinguishing marks of debility, proceeding from a disordered stomach. In such cases, a cordial medicine might afford a momentary comfort; but expulsion of the oppressing load is necessary to permanent relief.

The fifth Case is an history of a fever, with some remarkable symptoms, from a worm in the stomach. The fever was indeed peculiar; but, though its appearance may have been affected by the worm, we do not think that it was the cause. Our reason is, that the fever abated on the 14th day; and it seems to have remitted before the worm was evacuated. In the same patient, a remarkable dissolution of the blood followed. This disease is called by the Germans '*morbus petechialis sine febre*;' and is no very uncommon occurrence. The seventh and eighth Cases are proofs of remarkably rapid putrefaction in the living body. In both, the vital principle was very much weakened by the depressing passions, grief and fear. The ninth is sufficiently curious. A nervous atrophy, which resisted every medicine, was brought on by jealousy. The patient's husband, by accident, gave her an improper medicine, which, in effect, cured the complaint; not by means of the remedy, but from his distress, on account of the mistake: this convinced the lady that she was yet dear to him. The tenth is a case of dropsy, from unsuspected biliary concretions. Dr. Stack thinks that these calculi are more frequent than we commonly suppose, and often a remote cause of very different diseases.

In the following history, asthma, anasarca, with a pain and stiffness of the knee, seemed to arise from a tænia; but we wish to transcribe the following remark, that it may be more generally known, and the distinction, if the symptom be really of service in that view, better established.

'A medical gentleman, to whom I communicated this case, informed me that he had attended a young gentleman, who, at different times, was affected with pain, stiffness, and swelling in one of his knees, which did not, at any time, yield to the applications made use of, until he happened to void a round worm. Soon after, the pain used to quit him very suddenly, and the swelling and stiffness to go off gradually. Can the doctrine of sympathies help us to explain this phenomenon?'

The 12th. and 13th Cases show that sometimes by accident, sometimes from more certain causes, the eruption of the inoculated small pox may be retarded. In the first instance, the delay was owing to worms. Some remarks on inoculation follow, which seem to have been written in the infancy of the operation. They are not, at present, very interesting. The use of the warm bath, on the repulsion of the small pox, is now well established: the Cases, in this pamphlet, were subjoined to the author's Thesis, printed at Leyden, in 1764.

The Appendix contains the history of a lady who was affected with an obstinate costiveness, and some anomalous symptoms. The cause seemed to be an enlargement of the stomach, and a scirrhus on the inferior part of it. Dr. Stack suspected a tania; but we think every symptom may be satisfactorily explained, from the weight and pressure of the tumour.

We must dismiss this little work with our approbation; and can only wish, that the author's health and avocations may permit him to enlarge it. Twenty years of practice must surely have furnished a much greater variety.

*Medical Communications. Vol. I. 8vo. 6s. in Boards. Johnson.*

**S**INCE the principal supports of the 'Medical Observations' are removed, we may probably consider this work as a phoenix arising from the ashes of its predecessor. If so, our regret will be, in some measure, diminished; for, though the successor follows its parent with unequal steps, yet it follows at no great distance. We see, with pleasure, the aspiring attempts of those who laudably aim at being distinguished; and if they are, in a few instances, crude or less correct than we wished, they exhibit striking proofs of diligence and attention, frequently of learning and genius. In this new undertaking, it will be no useless task to trace the outlines by which, in our opinion, their future efforts may be most successfully directed.

The great object of these occasional authors, seems to be the accumulation of cases, new, extraordinary, and surprising. It is an old observation, that histories of this kind are more curious than useful; and, if they are ever admitted, it should be only where a very accurate history of the preceding complaints can be collected, and where they can be ultimately connected by the subsequent appearances on dissection. This connection has been seldom attended to in Bonetus and Lieutaud: we have occasion to regret the want of it sometimes even in Morgagni. In general, it is preserved in the present volume.

volume. It has been frequently wished, and indeed it would be desirable, that physicians would record their unsuccessful cases; we may add also, that they would mention their mistakes and the causes of the error; but, though a work of this kind would be useful, it can hardly be expected: physicians must indeed sometimes err; yet self-love always extenuates the error; and an anxiety, which we all feel, to conceal our faults, prevents the best practitioners from mentioning them. As histories of diseases are now written, we think that they are by no means useful; detached facts appear extraordinary, merely because they are not connected with others; and the most surprising events would, in some instances, fail of fixing the attention, if the collateral circumstances were known. Single cases, however, have frequently an advantage of which the author is scarcely aware. He who brings them to support the credit of a new remedy, or the use of a former one, in new circumstances, frequently explains to his reader what in the ardour of improvement he had overlooked. Facts speak different languages to different eyes; and, though we would not wish to accumulate them without necessity, yet, on some occasions, they are of service, if not to the cause of the author, to that of truth. Those facts are particularly advantageous, which elucidate the distinction of diseases frequently confounded.

The effects of new remedies, and what is of much more consequence, the circumstances which extend, limit, or correct the use of those already employed, is an important part of similar collections. On this subject, almost every one can furnish observations; it is only necessary to guard against the warmth, the enthusiasm, of an inventor or improver. He will be best secured from the effects of prepossessions, who is most aware of their existence. On this account, as well as many others, the reigning epidemic should be always attended to; and there can probably be no articles more important than a short relation of the nature of those which have occurred since the last publication, and how far they influence the effect of remedies. Few medical men can be ignorant how seldom intermittents, a few years since, yielded to the bark, long before the continued fevers assumed an appearance so decidedly bilious. We attributed much to the red bark; and it was undoubtedly more efficacious than the common; but, before it was generally employed, the fevers had appeared in a very different form, and the common bark was again successful. We therefore strongly recommend a series of observations of this kind: if properly digested, they would not be very extensive; but, unfortunately, those who are best  
able

able to furnish them, have least leisure for the task. The natural history of those remedies, which we receive in the form of preparations, would be also highly useful.

We have premised these few reflections, from a conviction of their utility; and shall now, as usual, attend to the several articles in their order.

Article I. An Account of the Epidemic Catarrh, of the Year 1782; compiled at the Request of the Society. By Edward Gray, M.D. F.R.S.—The very different accounts of the influenza are brought, by Dr. Gray, into one connected narrative; but, on this subject, we need not be diffuse. The sum of the whole is, that from May to August, 1782, a catarrhal complaint was almost universal in this kingdom, evidently traced from the north east; and, in some places, called the Russian cold. It was distinguished, from other catarrhs, by its being a very general epidemic, and by the great debility which attended it. If patients were irregular in their conduct, or improperly treated, it then, and then only, became inflammatory; but we have seen this change in putrid fevers, and even in the true ulcerated sore throat, from the same source. Its cause we must at present leave to the pathologist. Dr. Gray enquires, at some length, and, in our opinion, unnecessarily, how far it might be owing to contagion; for, though contagion was the general mode of communication, yet the miasmata were certainly conveyed also by the air. One fact, not singular, proves this mode. A family, convened in a social meeting, in perfect health, have before their separation universally been infected. If it should be supposed that any one brought it in their clothes, we may reply, that he would probably have been as susceptible of infection an hour before, as at that time: on the contrary, there seems to have been one general cause, so strong as to be irresistible. The fact is, that, like all other epidemics, the poison seems to be contained in the atmosphere; but frequently, though not universally, to require some exciting cause, before it exerts its peculiar deleterious powers. We cannot very critically examine each account; but, in some instances, we perceive inaccuracies and contradictions, though, on the whole, the compilation merits our commendation. It seems to have been generally agreed, that consumptions were less frequent after the epidemic catarrh, than after usual colds. To us, indeed, there seemed little difference: even at this moment we meet with consumptions, which are easily traced to that period. Our author mentions the circumstance which annually occurs at St. Kilda. This secluded island sees only an annual visitor, the steward who collects the rents; but immediately, on his arrival,

zival, all the inhabitants are affected with the epidemic cold. The fact is curious, and certainly true, though not new; it is mentioned by Martin, in his account of the Western Islands, and seems to shew, that the particular cause of the epidemic, is more generally diffused than we suspect. In smaller degrees, we probably elude its force, in consequence of its being habitual.

II. Remarks on the Influenza of the Year 1782. By James Carmichael Smyth, M. D. F. R. S.—This account came too late to be incorporated into the general one. It is apparently accurate, and written with ease and propriety: indeed all Dr. Smyth's communications show him to be an intelligent practitioner, and a careful observer.

III. An Account of a gouty Body, dissected by Henry Watton, F. R. S.—This paper might require a large commentary; even the soul itself, if it indeed resides in the pineal gland, became gouty, or, at least, had an uneasy seat, since this celebrated protuberance was changed into a chalky matter; this appearance seems to support the opinion of those who consider the gland as of the lymphatic kind. The brain was hard and dry; and this change will assist the arguments of Dr. Cullen and others, who think that mental diseases are connected with an organical affection of the encephalon; for the patient had sunk into a second childhood some time before his death. In short, not only the joints were stiffened by the earthy deposition, but it even appeared between the skin and the periosteum of the tibia. The glandular parts were particularly affected. We shall insert our author's opinion on the nature of the chalk, which will at least afford some comfort to the gloomy, arthritic; and, though we wish that this opinion had been supported by a chemical analysis, yet we can add, from practical observation, that we have not seen the gout combined with calculous complaints, except when, in consequence of the patient having been confined, for some weeks, on his back, the bladder has been prevented from entirely discharging its contents.

‘It has been, I believe, a pretty common opinion, that those who have gouty concretions in their joints, are very liable to the stone in the bladder and kidneys; as if the one disease were generally productive of the other.

‘Is not this pronouncing rather too much? for of all the patients cut in our hospitals, men, women and children, how few do we meet with that have any the slightest indications of gout about them?

‘Both the gout and the stone are morbid secretions, and may possibly exist together, in one and the same subject; but differ essentially in their material principles, and have very different tendencies.

‘The

The calculous matter is formed in the urinary passages—the gouty deposits itself generally on bones, cartilages, membranes, and lymphatic glands.

The gouty seems to be a kind of earth different from that which generally forms a stone in the urinary bladder; for it never appears lamellated, or to have any kind of nucleus, but is white, soft, and uniform throughout; it may be dissolved, and being ground down by the motion of a joint, readily mixes with the synovia, forming a smooth creamy fluid.

The gouty earth is then a kind of greasy bole, which may easily be made to mix with oil and water, which, in general, the calculous cannot be made to do; so that in every respect, in colour, form and consistence, it seems to differ essentially from that which lays the foundation, and causes the increase of the stone in the bladder.

IV. A Case of Proptosis. By Edward Ford, Surgeon.—The most material fact, in this article, arises from the dissection. The cause of the disease in the *left* eye, was an enlargement of the *left* thalamus of the optic nerve; and, in its progress, it pressed on the sight nerve, so as to deprive the patient of the sight of that eye, which had been hitherto unimpaired. It has been imagined, that the nerves of the eye arise from the side of the brain opposite to that on which they are finally distributed; and, even those who doubt of this total change of distribution, as Monro and others, yet allow that the fibres decussate in their progress. But, in this case, a considerable disease of one nerve had not the smallest effect on the other.

V. A singular Case of Hydatids. By Samuel Foart Simmons, M. D. F. R. S.—The sac containing the hydatids, or rather the habitation of the *tænia hydatigena* seems to have been the gall bladder, which was distended so as almost to fill the whole abdomen. It then perforated the diaphragm, and, contracting a little in its passage through that muscle, again expanded and filled nearly the left side of the thorax: in the substance of the liver was also a large sac containing ten pints of hydatids. This case is indeed surprising, but it surprises rather from the vast bulk, which originally arose from the small cyst usually containing the bile, than from the nature of the contents. Similar sacs are more commonly from the ovary; but the destructive animal, which causes so great devastation, may appear in any glandular part. We once saw it arise from the spleen.

VI. Observations on that Species of Hæmorrhage which is occasioned by an Attachment of the Placenta to the Cervix Uteri. By Andrew Douglas, M. D.—Every one, who has practised Midwifery, knows the distress which this mode of  
at-

attachment occasions to the operator and the patient. Our author proposes immediate delivery, while Mr. Rigby, whom we have more than once mentioned, in our Journal, with respect, advises us to wait till the os uteri is so far relaxed, in consequence of the evacuation, as to admit of dilatation with little force. Dr. Douglas supports his opinion, by insisting on the danger which will be the consequence of a considerable hæmorrhage, and the ease with which even lacerations of the cervix uteri commonly heal. After maturely ballancing the inconveniencies of each side, we own that we still think Mr. Rigby's method preferable: though, from the delay necessary, it will never be a favourite practice with either the patient or the practitioner. The debility, from hæmorrhage, is soon restored: the consequences of irritation, even if no laceration should happen, and it will probably seldom occur, are sometimes disagreeable. We believe Dr. Douglas's mode is the most common at present; and we have not found it frequently dangerous.

VII. An Account of an Aneurism of the Aorta. By Samuel Foart Simmons, M. D. F. R. S.—The symptoms, in this history, are very clearly related; and they will be of great service in distinguishing between an aneurism of the aorta, and an hydrothorax; for these two diseases, though essentially different, yet frequently produce symptoms very similar. The aneurism was at the anterior part of the curvature of the great artery.

VIII. An Account of a fatal Vomiting, apparently brought on by a Disease of the Kidneys. By the late William Keir, M. D.—This was an enlargement, rather than a disease, of the kidney, yet it contained some '*irregular calculi*,' which have, in other instances, frequently occasioned vomiting. The distinction was, in this patient, more difficult, as the swelling occasioned a tumour externally, which, from its situation, seemed to be an accumulation of feces in the colon. Our author's reflections are judicious, and worth preserving.

\* The facts which I have stated admit of useful application.  
1st. They afford a proof of a closer and more extensive sympathy between the kidneys and the stomach than has generally been thought to subsist. It has long been known that the stomach may be much disordered by diseases of the kidneys, attended with inflammation or with violent pain; but that a state of those organs, accompanied with neither, should produce a similar effect, has not, I think, been commonly imagined.

\* 2dly. They may help us to distinguish between diseases of the intestinal canal, and those of the kidneys. If sickness and violent vomiting should occur without pain or any sign of inflammation, the cause of the disease, even if constipation should attend,



attend, might with more reason be sought for in the kidneys than in the intestines; because the nature and the structure of the intestines hardly admit of the supposition, that a cause confined to them should occasion violent vomiting, without affecting the part where it is seated in a violent manner; which it can hardly do without producing a painful contraction, or an inflammatory state; and I know no instance of an obstinate vomiting, produced by a disorder of the intestines, without pain; whereas we are now possessed of two cases, where vomiting appears to have been supported with uncommon obstinacy, by a disease in the kidneys, without any mark in them either of pain or inflammation.

IX. On the Efficacy of the Spiritus Vitrioli dulcis, in the Cure of Fevers. By James Carmichael Smyth, M. D. F. R. S. —Dr. Smyth confines the use of this remedy chiefly to jail or hospital fever, and thinks that it acts as a cordial and diaphoretic. He allows it to be one of those remedies, whose operation is not so decided as to establish its use without controversy; but thinks that he has found it advantageous. We shall hint to Dr. Smyth, that the cases, particularly described, are of one epidemic; and the remedy was used nearly at a time when the crisis might have been reasonably expected. The days, in his table also, are not those of the fever, but of the employment of his medicine, which occasions an ambiguity, and gives a more favourable appearance of success. But since the publication of this volume, the few trials we have been enabled to make with it, confirm our author's opinion.

X. A Case of Ptyalism, apparently occasioned by a diminished Secretion of Urine. By Samuel Daniel, M. D. —This is another instance of the facility with which nature supplies the want of an accustomed evacuation; and it is no very uncommon one, in consequence of the use of mercury, though in the present case it had not been previously employed.

We shall finish this volume in another article. Many of the essays have entertained and instructed us: if the authors proceed with the same spirit, they will deserve encouragement; but they should be cautious in the choice of their materials. A volume may be easily filled; but they should aim also at rendering it valuable, nor suffer the fancied lustre which private friendship may diffuse to claim a preference due only to accurate observations and judicious reasoning.

*Expe-*

*Experiments and Observations on a new Species of Bark, showing its great Efficacy in very small Doses : also a comparative View of the Powers of the Red and Quilled Bark. By Richard Kentish, M. D. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Johnson.*

**I**F we consider this work as designed to introduce a new species of bark, it is highly commendable; in other respects, it is liable to exception. To the attention and industry of Mr. Wilton, an able apothecary in Henrietta-street, the world is much indebted for ascertaining the properties of this particular species, which, for various reasons, deserves our attention. The Caribbean bark, of which a description is given in the Sixty-seventh Volume of the Philosophical Transactions, p. 504, is found both in the Leeward and Windward Islands: in some of them the tree which produces it is common. Its qualities are bitterness and astringency in an extraordinary degree; but it is not in the same degree antiseptic. In the usual doses of bark, it proves emetic and laxative: in smaller ones, the effects of the common officinal are observed, without any very inconvenient addition of the other qualities. If future experience should support the observations of our author, it will prove a valuable addition to the *Materia Medica*, and will hold a middle place between the Peruvian and Cascarilla bark. We know not whether we have already mentioned the fact, but it is not new, though it occurs in this work, viz. that the cincona officinalis is found north of the Equator, in a very convenient situation for exportation; therefore our supply of the usual remedy will neither be so scanty or so precarious as it has hitherto been.

A great part of this pamphlet consists of experiments to ascertain the difference between the quilled and the red bark. Dr. Kentish prefers the former, because it contains a greater quantity of the astringent principle, which is extracted by water, while the latter abounds chiefly in a bitter one, contained in a resinous substance. We could fill pages with discussions on this subject; but, after all our labour, they would be of little value: our author is yet young from the schools, and argues plausibly, but inconclusively. The bark is compounded by nature, and its several ingredients, combined, produce a given effect. They may be bitters, astringents, or any others; but we are at least certain that we are unable to produce similar effects from any combination of these qualities: consequently there is little foundation for any reasoning on the nature of the separate principles. Again, if his arguments were just, the cold infusion should be the most active preparation

of the bark; which is not true. We allow that it is frequently the most convenient, though it is the weakest. The substance holds the highest rank; next to it come the watery and spirituous extracts combined, as in the last edition of the Edinburgh Dispensatory; for in this form we approach nearest to the substance: of the other preparations, the decoction is stronger than the infusion. The tincture is a partial preparation, as the spirit extracts only one portion of the bark, and is seldom useful, but as an addition to the infusion. These are the dictates of experience rather than reasoning; to come nearer to the point, we can adduce the most respectable testimonies of the superior utility of the red bark, without adding our own. We probably, at first, attributed too much to it, for the reasons mentioned in the introduction to our review of the Medical Communications; but, after every allowance, it will still remain the more powerful medicine.

The language of this little work is not incorrect; but it is elevated beyond the calm perspicuity which should distinguish science and philosophy. Our author tells us, that Linnæus has inserted only one species of cincona; but he should have looked into the last editions, before he had risked an assertion so positive. He treats too of this species as one scarcely, if at all, known in England; though it had been particularly described in the volume of Philosophical Transactions before referred to.

On the whole, we have received some information from these experiments, and recommend them, on that account; but they should be read with caution, and perhaps a little distrust.

*An Essay on draining and improving Peat Bogs. By Mr. Nicholas Turner. 8vo. 3s. Baldwin.*

THE author of this Essay gives clear and explicit directions on a subject little understood: if the chief part of his plan is not new, yet it comes under the sanction of experience, attended with some additional illustrations. Peat bogs are frequently called the moss; and there are few who do not recollect the devastation occasioned by the increase of Solway Moss, in the year 1771. The natural history of this surprising phenomenon is still imperfect: the moss proceeds by degrees, appearing like a spongy body, whose pores are filled with a fluid; in reality, it is a semi-fluid mass, consisting of a peculiar vegetable, whose fibres are matted together, and the interstices filled with water and earth. It advances slowly; but its force is irresistible: hedges, trees, and different

ferent bodies, in its progress, yield to this seemingly insignificant power: corn-fields, meadows, gardens, and plantations, are covered by a fatal enemy, and present only a dreary and melancholy waste. To drain the superfluous water, and to destroy this incroaching vegetable, is an arduous task; yet human ingenuity has effected greater changes. We think that our author's plan will, in many cases, succeed; and if it is not always successful, it will suggest some useful schemes in those instances where it has failed. Bogs, as he allows, are indeed of very different kinds.

Mr. Turner apologises for his deficiency in chemical knowledge; and we shall again remark the almost absolute necessity of this science to every rational husbandman. The useful parts are few, easily learned, and the necessary experiments can be made or repeated with very slight apparatus. Our author's mistakes are, in a great degree, owing to unfaithful guides; for, except Dr. Fordyce's very concise treatise, we have scarcely a work in English which can be implicitly followed. Why is Bergman's treatise, '*Sur les Terres geoponiques*' not yet translated? We shall insert the following description of peat from this author:

'On dissecting a piece of peat, its foliage will be found distinct and lateral: as a proof, take a piece from within a foot of the surface, and on a moderate compression, you will find it lose eight-tenths of its thickness; but use the same force in lateral pressure, it being against the grain, it will not lose one-fourth. Besides roots and flaggy leaves, there is also now and then a thick and hollow tube, in which the lateral leaves are inserted, composed of very strong rigid fibres that run down perpendicularly; these are so strong as to make the tube impervious to the water, and are for the conveyance of air to such part of the bog as is within about four feet of the surface; after that depth I am inclined to think vegetation ceases, from the peat that is dug there being more compact and weighty, and containing no roots or air tubes: as there is ever a fermentation in the change of all bodies from an entire to a corrupted state, so it is probable, in this case particularly, from the peat being darker, that there is a gentle one sufficient to dissolve the tubes and roots, but that the want of heat, and the admission of the external air, together with the accessant qualities of peat, retard a further putrefaction.'

The antiseptic property of peat, for the wood which has laid for ages in a peat bog remains almost entire, is attributed to the bitumen, and to the acid which it contains. Our author thinks that the moss flourishes chiefly in bituminous waters. The oil arising in the analysis of peat seems to be

chiefly produced from the vegetable itself; and we want a much greater variety of experiments, than Dr. Home has made on this subject, to ascertain the source of the acids procured by distilling peat. It may be proper to add, that every kind of moss is not very susceptible of the putrefactive fermentation; but we need neither to have recourse to the oil or the acid, to account for the preservation of wood in such situations. If our author repeats Dr. Percival's experiments on the liquor of dung, in the Philosophical Transactions, with suitable care, he will find that it does not militate against the general rule, that rotten vegetable matter yields no salts; and if he examines the constitution of the air, or the best chemical writers on the subject, he will not, with Dr. Home, ascribe the virtues of alkaline salt to a vitriolated tartar, formed by extracting an acid from the atmosphere, which scarcely ever exists in it.

The remedies for this destructive evil, which our author recommends, are, either flooding, if possible, by a neighbouring river, or compressing by a weight of earth. Draining, combined with compression, is sometimes useful; but alone it is never effectual, nor will it supply properly the place of the other method. An Essex farmer, who proposes ditches gradually deepened, and thinks that draining only succeeds, yet orders the earth dug from them to be thrown on the peat: after all, the bog is destined only for ash. The operation of flooding is, in our opinion, more decisive of the nature of peat bogs than a chemical analysis. The water usually contained in them is absorbed by the minute cells of the matted vegetable, and is rather mechanically than ohemically combined. A superabundant quantity of water destroys the plant; and, though it does not quickly advance to a state of putrefaction, yet it seems not very remarkable for an opposite quality. Bogs of this kind are sooner covered with a vegetable mould than we can account for by the deposition of earth from water alone; and we think the slow destruction of trees, in similar bogs, to be in a great measure owing to the exclusion of the air, and the uniform moisture in which they are preserved. Alternate wet and drying is most fatal to wood of every kind. The effect of pressure is certainly owing to the destruction of the vegetable, either from the weight, or by pressing out the contained water. Mr. Turner uses earth and stones; but prefers a proportion of lime-stone, which acts also as a proper manure.

On the whole, we would recommend this study to able chemists. Our author has furnished facts, which will materially assist them; and what he has advanced from experience,

respecting the methods of reclaiming peat bogs, is very valuable. He would have been more successful in his pursuits, if he had advanced farther in chemical knowledge.

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*A Discourse on the Institution of a Society for enquiring into the History, Civil and Natural, the Antiquities, Arts, Sciences, and Literature of Asia; and a Hymn to Camdeo. By Sir William Jones. 4to. 1s. 6d. Payne.*

**I**F the elegance, the learning, and the judgment of Sir William Jones were not already known, we might be more diffuse in our commendations: it is sufficient now to observe, that neither the Discourse on the Institution of the Asiatic Society, nor the Charge to the Grand Jury, at Calcutta, fully the author's former reputation. The extensive designs sketched by the bold and animated pencil of an enthusiastic admirer of Asiatic literature, may not perhaps be wholly filled up; but this is no fault: a vast design may terrify an individual, though a society, by its united efforts, may rise superior to its magnitude. How grand and stupendous is the following plan!

‘It is your design, I conceive, to take an ample space for your learned investigations, bounding them only by the geographical limits of Asia; so that, considering Hindostan as a centre, and turning your eyes in idea to the north, you have, on your right, many important kingdoms in the eastern peninsula—the ancient and wonderful empire of China, with all her Tartarian dependencies; and that of Japan, with the cluster of precious islands, in which many singular curiosities have too long been concealed. Before you lies that prodigious chain of mountains, which formerly, perhaps, were a barrier against the violence of the sea; and beyond them, the very interesting country of Tibet, and the vast regions of Tartary, from which, as from the Trojan horse of the poets, have issued so many consummate warriors, whose domain has extended at least from the banks of the Hissus to the mouths of the Ganges. On your left are the beautiful and celebrated provinces of Iran or Persia; the unmeasured, and perhaps unmeasurable, deserts of Arabia; and the once flourishing kingdom of Yemen, with the pleasant isles that the Arabs have subdued or colonized; and farther westward, the Asiatic dominions of the Turkish sultans, whose moon seems approaching rapidly to its wane.—By this great circumference the field of your useful researches will be inclosed: but since Egypt had unquestionably an old connexion with this country, if not with China—since the language and literature of

the Abyssinians bear a manifest affinity to those of Asia—since the Arabian arms prevailed along the African coast of the Mediterranean, and even erected a powerful dynasty on the continent of Europe—you may not be displeased occasionally to follow the streams of Asiatic learning a little beyond its natural boundary: and if it be necessary or convenient that a short name or epithet be given to our society, in order to distinguish it in the world, that of Asiatic appears both classical and proper, whether we consider the place or the object of the institution; and preferable to Oriental, which is in truth a word merely relative, and, though commonly used in Europe, conveys no very distinct idea.

We indeed felt, at the introduction, how much ridicule might affect the most serious subjects. ‘When I was at sea last August, says our author, I perceived, by the observations of the day, that India lay before us, and Persia on our left, while a breeze from Arabia blew nearly on our stern.’ Perhaps this exordium is too much ornamented: few readers will forget my Father Shandy’s quotation, when my Uncle Toby thought his description real, and charitably concluded, that, if he was not the wandering Jew, he had lost his senses.

The Charge to the Grand Jury is clear, judicious, and dignified. It is the language of an interpreter, not of the perverter of the laws; of an impartial judge, not of a biased advocate. Laws indeed must be necessarily general rules; and it is the province of the judge to apply these general rules to particular cases. If they sometimes seem to injure those whom they ought to protect, it arises from a concurrence of circumstances, which the best legislator could not prevent, because the wisest could not foresee them.

‘The use of law, says our author, as a science, is to prevent mere discretionary power, under the colour of equity; and it is the duty of a judge to pronounce his decisions, not simply according to his own opinion of justice and right, but according to prescribed rules. It must be hoped that his own reason generally approves those rules; but it is the judgment of the law, not his own, which he delivers. Were judges to decide by their bare opinions of right and wrong—opinions always unknown, often capricious, sometimes improperly biased—to what an arbitrary tribunal would men be subject! in how dreadful a state of slavery would they live!—Let us be satisfied, gentlemen, with law, which all who please may understand; and not call for equity in its popular sense, which differs in different men, and must at best be dark and uncertain.’



In the Hymn, which is subjoined to these orations, we perceive a surprising connexion between the Hindù mythology and that of Rome. Our author attributes it to the Etruscans, from whom a great part of the religion of Rome was derived, and whose system had a near affinity with that of the Persians and Indians. Whatever may be its source, the resemblance is striking, and the stories are related with all the wild imagery, and luxuriant language, peculiar to the poetry of the East. We may reasonably expect to enlarge our stock of poetical imagery; as well as of history, from the labours of the Asiatic Society. If well-directed, and we have no reason to doubt it, they will be enabled, in a superior degree, to combine the useful and the pleasing. We shall select one stanza as a specimen of this poem, but must premise that *Krishen* is the Apollo, and *Mahadeo* the Jupiter of the Hindoos; the *Gopia* are the Eastern Muses.

‘ Can men resist thy pow’r, when Krishen yields,  
 Krishen, who still in Matra’s holy fields  
 Tunes harps immortal, and to strains divine  
 Dances by moonlight with the Gopia nine?  
 But when thy daring arm untam’d  
 At Mahadeo a loveshaft aim’d,  
 Heaven shook, and smit with stony wonder,  
 Told his deep dread in bursts of thunder;  
 Whilst on thy beauteous limbs an azure fire  
 Blaz’d forth, which never must expire.’

We shall take leave of the present collection, by expressing our wishes, that this useful design may be successfully executed,

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*The Frogs. A Comedy. Translated from the Greek of Aristophanes, by C. Dunster, A. M. 4to. 3s. 6d. Rivington.*

IT has been observed, that translators and commentators generally become partizans in favour of the original author: that they exalt his merits beyond their proper pitch, and studiously cast a veil over his defects. Such a mode of conduct is not to be attributed to a wilful design of misleading their reader’s judgment; it is founded in nature, and originates from a better principle, the innate sensations of gratitude for the pleasure which attended their labours, whether the success was real or imaginary. From this good-natured error, the present writer seems not entirely free. He observes that ‘ the elegance of Aristophanes’ language, the brilliancy of his wit, and the poignancy of his satire, have been universally admired.

But Plutarch has asserted, that he wrote chiefly to please the vulgar; that he affected a style obscure and licentious; that it was sometimes pompous, and often mean and puerile. He has pointed out many other defects, but we think with too great severity, in order to elevate the character of Menander, and sometimes possibly from not entering thoroughly into the spirit of Aristophanes, who abounds in parodies, and often designedly blends the vulgar and sublime, to strengthen his ridicule. The author likewise tells us, that

‘The design of Aristophanes in his writings was chiefly a moral one, though occasionally ill-directed and divested from its object to serve party-purposes, or gratify some personal pique or resentment. His comedies are a very bold and general satire on the misconduct of his countrymen.’

We allow the last position; but if by ‘moral design,’ this gentleman means inculcating the duties of life, we have observed very few passages of that kind, but many of a contrary tendency. If ‘those works were honoured with a place under the pillow of the great Chrysostom,’ we do not think it redounds much to the saint’s credit. Though their ‘panegyric has been highly founded by the learned Scaliger,’ the following passage seems to shew, whatever opinion he held of their author’s abilities, he entertained no very favourable one of the virtues of his heart, or benevolence of his intention.—

‘Veteris quidem comediarum argumenta omnia fusa, festiva, mordacia, maledica: ut quocunque verbo pronuntiato, illico capiatur occasio ad aliquid subfannandum.—Quid alii in eâ parte valuerint, quia nihil extet, parum constat: quantus fuerit Aristophanes, satis ex ejus scriptis patet. Nihil ferè a quoquam dicitur, quod non ad *alicujus perniciem accommodetur.*’

Poet. l. iii.—The principal design in most of his comedies seems to be, though various other objects of satire are occasionally pursued, to expose those demagogues of Athens to ridicule and detestation, who were enemies to himself, or the party with which he was connected. Consequently he ought to be considered *chiefly* as a political writer: his abuse is of a similar nature, though more highly seasoned with wit, than that we now meet with in a party news-paper: it is sometimes *stiff* and allusive; but generally gross and personal; and we doubt not the Athenians were equally as well pleased to hear their superiors traduced, as our own countrymen. It has been the custom to compare Poëte with Aristophanes; but we think Fielding, in his political dramas, bears, on the whole, a stronger resemblance: they breathe his very spirit; have the same characteristic wildness of plot; the same keenness and asperity;

asperity; the same original and peculiar humour.—The author proceeds to observe, that

‘ They hold forth vice and folly to ridicule in so lively and ingenious a manner, that it may be doubted whether they would not, even now, produce a more beneficial effect than any species of comedy since devised.’

This is a point extremely questionable: the satyrist, in such a case, might exclaim like Pope,

‘ Yes, I am proud; I must be proud to see  
Men not afraid of God, afraid of me:  
Safe from the bar, the pulpit, and the throne,  
Yet touch’d and sham’d by *Ridicule* alone.’

But this ‘ sacred weapon,’ to use his words, should be ‘ to all but heav’n-directed hands, denied.’ That Aristophanes was not altogether worthy the trust; and that it may be wielded to the annoyance of innocence and virtue, no less than to the confusion of vice, the *Clouds* sufficiently evince.

‘ Offensive parts, it must be confessed, there are; but whoever is the least conversant with the writings of Aristophanes will never conceive them to have been the result of a propensity to ribaldry, much less of an incapacity to furnish superior entertainment. Nor can we imagine they were introduced merely in compliance with the then prevailing taste of the Athenians. May we not therefore fairly suppose, that the grossness of those passages, for which he has been censured, was purposely adopted, to cover, in some degree, his satirical intention, and to make the battery he was preparing to open, so as to give it greater effect?’

These ‘ offensive parts’ give no very high idea of the delicacy of taste generally attributed to the Athenians, at least in the days of Aristophanes: they would now be heard with disgust by the upper gallery in a provincial theatre. The translator has judiciously softened, or omitted, the most exceptionable. That the Grecian bard has often introduced ribaldry, as a cover to mask his satyric battery, and, like Touchstone, ‘ used his folly as a stalking-horse, under the presentation of that to shoot his wit,’ may probably be the case. That he at least sometimes sacrificed his better judgment to please the vitiated taste of his audience seems evident from the first speech.

‘ Sir, may I utter some of my old jokes,  
At which the audience never fail to laugh?’

This is spoken by Xanthias, the slave of Bacchus, who ‘ rides upon an ass, with a heavy bundle suspended from a staff which he carries on his shoulder. Bacchus appears with

a lion's skin thrown over his own proper dress, and with a great club in his hand, meaning to pass for Hercules.\* It may be observed that, in this play, the Olympic deities are not exhibited in a more respectable light than in the burletta of Midas. Yet the very same people, who here laughed at the ludicrous representation, not long afterwards, and partly perhaps through its author's means, sacrificed Socrates, on suspicion of his entertaining some heterodox opinions relative to their divinityship. Can a stronger instance be given of the inconsistency of human nature! unless we suppose the poet, like Rabelais, by assuming the *fool's-cap*, warded off the danger which a serious exposure would almost inevitably have produced. A king's jester, in former times, has often excited laughter by the same speech that would have endangered a minister's head. The first dialogue is replete with the same kind of quibbling and low wit, to which Shakspeare condescended for the entertainment of our ancestors, in the golden days of queen Elizabeth and her profound successor. A short specimen will be sufficient. Xanthias, obliged to carry a heavy burthen, and prohibited from uttering his indecent jokes, complains of the double hardship. Bacchus replies,

'What fauciness and delicate airs!—I  
Bacchus, the genuine offspring of a cask\*,  
Weary myself by trudging it on foot,  
But mount this fellow;—lest he feel fatigue  
From walking or from carrying his load,

*Xanth.* Do I not bear it?

*Bac.* When thou'rt born thyself?

*Xanth.* Still I bear this.

*Bac.* How so?

*Xanth.* Why, to my sorrow,

*Bac.* Say carries not thy ass whate'er thou bear'st?

*Xanth.* Not so.—All this I bear; not he, by Jove.

*Bac.* How can'st thou bear it, who thyself art born?

*Xanth.* I know not how; but still this shoulder aches.'

The dialogue is terminated by the entrance of Hercules, who enquires

'Who thump'd the door? some centaur certainly.  
Has leap'd against it.—Answer me, who's there?'

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\* I cannot find any authority for supposing, what the scholiast on our author's comedy of Plutus, v. 545, has observed with a reference to this passage, that Jupiter was called *Στραμνιος*. It seems rather to be a parody on some well-known line of one of the poets of that time, who had made Bacchus pompously describe himself as the son of Jupiter; in ridicule of which Aristophanes calls him *the son of a cask*.

The translator supposes 'Hercules says this, laughing at the appearance of Bacchus, whose person and disposition we are to suppose very unfit for the character he had assumed.' We should rather imagine that he alludes to Xanthias and his courser; which in the presentation might have appeared unruly, and kicked against the door. The slave's ridiculous figure, contrasted with the formidable idea conceived of the centaurs, must probably have produced a laughable effect on the audience. The speech preceding that we have quoted will warrant either conjecture.

The scene between Xanthias and Æacus, who is represented as a domestic of Pluto's, will possibly give a higher idea of Aristophanes' humour; it will at least shew that the characteristic qualities of the great and their menials, in his days, were not unlike the present.

*Æac.* By Jove! thy master's quite the man of fashion.

*Xanth.* Why how thou'd he be otherwise?—I'm sure Whoring and drinking are his sole pursuits.

*Æac.* How happen'd it he did not rate thee well,  
And cudgel thee, when thou a slave dar'dst pass  
Thyself for him?

*Xanth.* 'Twas well for him he did not.

*Æac.* Why now thou treat'st him as a servant ought,  
And as I'd like to serve my master,

*Xanth.* Pray,—  
Wou'dst like it?

*Æac.* 'Tis the height of happiness  
To me when I can curse him secretly.

*Xanth.* What! when well thrash'd thou goest out muttering?

*Æac.* E'en then it joys me.

*Xanth.* Or when thou art bid  
Do twenty things at once?

*Æac.* Not I, by Jove!

*Xanth.* But, my illustrious brother;—when thou listen'st  
To over-hear thy master's conversation!

*Æac.* The wond'rous pleasure makes me almost mad.

*Xanth.* And when abroad thou tell'st it all again?

*Æac.* O Jupiter!—I can't contain myself.

The first part of this performance is chiefly employed in describing some ludicrous adventures of Bacchus in the inferior regions: the latter, in contrasting the respective merits, or rather defects, of Æschylus and Euripides. Their characters are faithfully drawn, though with some degree of severity, in the following chorus.

'How will the bard of furious soul  
Swell with indignant rage,  
His flaming eyes in frenzy roll,  
To see his wily foe preparing to engage!—

Grand

Grand shall now the contest be  
 Of glitt'ring phraseology ;  
 While one shall ev'ry strain'd conceit refine,  
 Paring each thought, and polishing each line,  
 The other scorning art's dull track to try  
 Shall pour his genuine thoughts in loftiest poetry.  
 His bristly neck aloft he'll rear  
 And shake his shaggy mane,  
 A low'ring frown his brow shall wear  
 Fierce emblem of disdain,  
 While he in furious mood along  
 Shall roll in complicated song,  
 As from the vessel's side by storms are torn  
 Its solid planks in well-wedg'd durance join'd,  
 Or as afar the dreadful sounds are borne  
 When from earth's centre bursts th' imprison'd wind.—  
 With pow'rs of pliability  
 And tuneful tongue the other fraught,  
 Studious of smoothest harmony,  
 Shall twist and torture ev'ry thought,  
 While, with superior subtilty,  
 In many a nicely-labour'd phrase,  
 Champing the bit of envy, he  
 Retorts upon his rivals sounding lays.'

The lyric parts, from the intermixture of burlesque images with genuine poetry, are peculiarly difficult to be rendered with success. The translator, however, though some inaccuracies occur, has acquitted himself with credit; and his notes are sensible and judicious. He had many difficulties to encounter: the original is often obscure; many of its allusions, that formerly might set the house in a roar, are now irretrievably lost; and others, that by the zeal of commentators are somewhat elucidated, no longer preserve their former poignancy. Such is the fate that will attend all those who merely paint the living manners!—If we do not think so highly of the Grecian bard as his translator, we cannot but allow that a complete version of his comedies is to be desired, and hope that he will be induced to pursue an undertaking for which he seems perfectly qualified. We would then advise him to give the life of Aristophanes, connected with the manners and politics of the time. Many passages in his plays would reflect and borrow light from an interesting period of history, and be an acquisition to the literary world.

*The Patriot. A Tragedy. Altered from the Italian of Metastasio.*  
8vo. 1s. 6d. Shepperson and Reynolds.

THE author confesses, that, though called an alteration this is only an 'humble translation of the Themistocles of Metastasio;' but it must be our business to ascertain its character with greater precision. The plot and the sentiments are really those of the Italian: the conduct of the play is not very different; for in one place there is only a slight variation of a scene, and the two first acts of the opera are divided into four in the translation. The language is elegant and copious: indeed from its copiousness alone the play is extended to nearly the usual size of our English tragedies. In some instances new sentiments are introduced; and in one or two places a line of the original has unaccountably escaped the notice of the translator: even in the first scene, the following passage is omitted in its proper place:

'—————debbono i saggi  
Adattarsi alla sorte.'

The sentiments of the original are in general so well preserved, and the language is so easy, and often so highly ornamented, that we do not perceive, without the Italian before us, any disagreeable effects from the enlargement. Those who are acquainted with Metastasio, must have frequently observed an energy, and an abruptness, which, in some situations, add greatly to the delusion of the scene; in others, they hurry on the business with too great precipitation. We think that the translator, Mr. Hamilton, has not always been attentive to the effects: the whole is uniformly extended, and consequently some passages have greater force, and in others the impression is more languid than it ought to be. The operas of Metastasio are indeed the works of a glowing fancy: his language is the vivid representation of poetic inspiration. Every thing is dictated in a moment; and the fire of a first impression is not cooled by the polish of critical accuracy. With the translator every circumstance is necessarily different; so that we are not surprised, either that Mr. Hoole or Mr. Hamilton have been unequal to the expression of the manner, the costume, if we may be allowed the term, of the original.

As the argument of this play is not generally known to the English reader, we shall give a brief analysis of it. After the battle of Salamis, we learn from Plutarch, that the Athenians, either fearing the power, or envying the glory of Themistocles, listened to the misrepresentations of faction, and banished their deliverer. The hero thought himself not safe  
within

within the reach of those enemies who had plotted his destruction, and retired to Susa: he there discovered himself to Xerxes, who, admiring his intrepidity, protected and favoured him. The king hated the Grecians, and thought that Themistocles ought equally to hate them, in return for the injuries he had suffered: he therefore proposed to the exile an expedition into Greece; but patriotism, in this instance, overcame the desire of revenge, and he refused his assistance. Xerxes endeavoured to compel him; but Themistocles determined to swallow poison, if he could not escape this odious employment. At last, Xerxes, overcome by his enemy's fortitude and generosity, yielded; he not only excused Themistocles, but swore to preserve a perpetual peace with Greece. The play chiefly comprehends the transactions at the Persian court; and, to fill the business of the scene, the daughter of Themistocles is unexpectedly found a prisoner at Susa. Xerxes' love for Aspasia, her affection for Themistocles, the jealousy of Roxana, betrothed to Xerxes, and the treason of Seabastes, are subordinate events, which are well connected with the principal story.

This play has, in general, the faults and excellencies which have been frequently observed in the works of Metastasio. We need not now enquire into the existence of Xerxes, or those immense armaments, which seem to have been only found in the exaggerated relations of Greece. Whether it be a real or a fictitious character, it is supported with propriety and consistency: eager, warm, and impetuous; but with traces of better qualities, which, if matured by instruction, might have changed the jealous tyrant into a benevolent monarch. Themistocles also 'servatur ad inum, qualis ab incepto processerit' His firmness and patriotism are the leading qualities. He is not depressed by distress, nor elated by prosperity; and his language in both situations preserves the same unvaried tenor. The accumulated misfortunes of the Grecian hero have great force, when the idea is not weakened by an useless word.

————— io non son piu d'Atene  
La speranza, e l'amor: mendico, ignoto,  
Esule, abbandonato,  
Ramingo, discacciato  
Ogni cosa perdei: sola m'avanza  
(E il miglior mi restò) la mia costanza.'

We shall subjoin the translation, which is unusually concise, though by no means exact.

'I am no more the pride and hope of Athens:  
While all that fortune lent or heav'n bestow'd,

Wealth,



Wealth, pow'r, pre-eminence, fame, country, friends;  
All's lost, and in the shipwreck of my fortunes  
One only jewel have I sav'd——my honour.'

We are surpris'd that, in this passage, and in two others, 'constanza' is translated 'honour': it evidently means 'fortitude'; for honour has here no relation to his situation: in one place Mr. Hamilton has given the true meaning. The following lines are beautiful; but they have a very distant relation to the original:

'Is Xerxes then so soon forget in Athens,  
His deadly hate, his enmity unceasing,  
That to her vain and impotent decrees  
She asks a monarch's ministry?—away!  
The Greeks, too soon elate with victory,  
Shall see the clouds disperse, that late obscur'd  
The Persian name, while Europe's farthest shores,  
Drench'd with the blood of her expiring sons,  
And vocal with their groans, to list'ning Asia  
Shall waft the echo of the loud atonement.'

'Ame che importa  
Il riposo d'Atene? Esser degg'io  
De' vostri cenni esecutor? Chi mai  
Questo nuovo introdusse  
Obbligo fra nemici? A dar venite  
Leggi, o consigli? Io non mi fido a questi,  
Quelle non soffro. Eh vi sollevi meno  
L'aura d'una vittoria: è molto ancora  
La Greca sorte incerta;  
L'ancor la via d'Atene a Serse aperta.'

This passage is a happy instance of the abruptness which an unreasonable request occasions, and is equally suited to the character of Xerxes, and to the situation in which he is placed.

We have not extracted any particular passage, as a specimen of our translator's amplification; because it will be obvious in those produced for other purposes. But it is not enough to detect blemishes, we should also point out beauties; and in that light the following address of Neocles to his father Themistocles, will probably be considered, for strength of language, and choice of expression:

'Your name will long in after-ages live,  
As fam'd for bold exploits, as fortitude  
And patient suffer'ing, under dreadful hardships;  
But wherefore seek new dangers in this place?  
As yet unconquer'd by oppression's hand,  
You still expose yourself to Persian rage,  
Provoke the vengeance of a barb'rous people,

And

And sure destruction court upon your head.  
 Have you forgot the fight of Salamis,  
 Your wond'rous deeds 'gainst th' Asiatic host,  
 When the proud despot, whose ambitious mind  
 Aspir'd the pond'rous earth to bind in chains,  
 And lead old ocean captive, cow'ring fled.  
 Why thus awake the cruel tyrant's wrath?  
 If once discover'd, where a refuge find?  
 What means of flight, beset with num'rous foes?  
 Too many enemies hath thankless Athens  
 Rais'd 'gainst the virtues they despair to equal:  
 But all are bound here to avenge the loss  
 Of father, brother, son, or kinsman slain,  
 On th' ever memorable day when Greece  
 Was, by you, rescu'd from a foreign yoke.  
 Oh, hear me! let's depart.

We shall add the original.

‘Sia tutto ver; ma quel ragion ti guida  
 A cercar nuovi rischi in questo loco?  
 L'odio de' Greci è poco? Esor de' Persi  
 Anche all'ire ti vuoi? Non ti sovviene.  
 Che l' assalita Atene  
 Usci per te di tutta l'Asia a fronte  
 Serse derise, e il temerario ponte?  
 Deh non creder sì breve  
 L'odio nel cor d'un Re. Se alcun ti scuopre  
 A chi ricorri? Ai gran nemici altrove  
 Ma qui son tutti: a ciascheduno à tolto  
 Nella celebre strage il tuo consiglio  
 O l'amico, o il congiunto, o il padre, o il figlio.  
 Deh per pietà Signore  
 Fuggiam——.’

There are many passages translated with great force and peculiar happiness; but we are not able to transcribe them, on account of their extent. In several respects our translator has succeeded very well: his chief failure has been in not preserving the concise energy, the abrupt force of the original. A translation of Metastasio, in which the manner, as well as the matter, is more attended to, would be a considerable addition to English literature.

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*A Journal, kept on a Journey from Bassora to Bagdad; over the little Desert, to Aleppo, Cyprus, Rhodes, Zante, Corfu; and Otranto, in Italy; in the Year 1779. 8vo. 3s. Richardson.*

**T**HE Journey which forms the subject of this narrative, is now not unfrequently performed by passengers from the East Indies; and as the route is far from being yet well known  
 to

to British travellers, a faithful detail of it may, to such, prove particularly serviceable. The Journal commences on Thursday, March 10, 1779; when the author, in company with four other English gentlemen, departed from Bassora, in two small boats, for Corna; to which place they passed along a very pleasant river, both sides whereof were beautified with fine rows of date trees. The extortion practised by governors, and other civil officers, with the treachery of linguists and interpreters, constitute the chief incidents on the journey; of which the following is a specimen.

‘ Our linguist acquainted us this morning, that the governor had received a letter from Bassora last night, informing him of the death of Carim Cawn, the regent of Persia, at Shyrass. In consequence of which Saddoo Cawn, and all the Persians, had left Bassora, to repair as fast as possible to that place, he being one of the competitors for the regency. This accident, it was imagined, would create great disturbances in the Persian empire, and will give the Arabs an opportunity of accomplishing their scheme of recovering Bassora, without blood-shed, and I make not the least doubt, should the news prove true, shaick Tamar has before this taken the advantage of it.—We were promised boats to convey us from hence to Hilla, for which we were to pay twenty-four zurmaboobs. I was fearful we should again be put to some inconvenience for want of money; we were told, a day or two ago, by our linguist, that a merchant here would advance us what we wanted, for our bills on Mr. Latouche; he afterwards informed us, the man would not do it. This fellow carried on some trade, consisting of shawls, &c. and I am inclined to believe him rascal enough to persuade us of the impossibility of getting money, that we might be obliged to purchase his things, (to give the people in lieu of cash) at whatever price he pleased to set on them. It has very plainly appeared to me, throughout the journey, thus far, that he endeavoured to fleece us as much as possible. These men are very necessary, and there is no doing without them, but I would advise every friend of mine not to put too much confidence in them, as I am persuaded they permit the country people to make the most of you as you pass along. I have this suspicion from the dirty, under-hand dealing of the one we employed.—In the afternoon we were told, that the boats could not be got in readiness before the next morning; and we had great reason to fear, notwithstanding our presents, that the honest governor was still playing us some of his tricks. Several of the principal towns people advised us by no means to think of going the way proposed, as we should certainly be plundered. The sciad, who had forwarded Burford and De Bourg, came to our linguist, and desired him to persuade us from taking a step of the kind, giving as a reason, that the Arabs all the way up the river, were well informed of our coming, and were lying

lying in wait for us, in expectation of meeting with great spoil. He said, had we divested ourselves of our baggage, he would likewise have sent us on without the least hazard, at the time when the other gentlemen went. The only method he could now advise, with any degree of safety, was to return to Bazool, (giving out that we were going back to Bassora) and on our arrival there to dispatch a man to shaick Tamar, to procure us camels to proceed to Mushat. On hearing this, we began to think we were in a most disagreeable situation, and consulted on what was best to be done. It was proposed by some of the party, to change our clothes for the meanest we could get; to send back our baggage, and go forward on asses. This proposition was rejected. Soon after this, our linguist, whom we had sent on enquiries, came in, and acquainted us, that a sciad from Bassora had offered to conduct us safe to Hilla, free of all other expences, for 200 piafters, to be paid on our safe arrival there. This, though rather exorbitant, we gladly embraced, and now entertained hopes of soon getting clear of this infamous place, when we were visited by our careful friend the governor, and the sciad who had made the proposal coming in, told him of his offer, but this conscientious gentleman put a stop to it, which we have since heard was owing to the sciad's refusing to make him some acknowledgment. No money being to be procured under 20 per cent. discount, we were reduced to the greatest difficulty, till on lessening our baggage to one small trunk each, which we found indispensably necessary, one of the party luckily found eighty-two piaftres, which were fully sufficient for the occasion. Soon after we were again visited by the custom-master, renewing his demand of customs, and on our refusing to comply with it, he very insolently shook his spear at us, telling us he would have his customs in spite of our teeth. Our linguist was sent to the governor with a complaint of this behaviour; he desired us to pay no attention to it. About seven o'clock this evening the sciad came to us, and advanced his price to 250 piafters, which we consented to give him, and entered into a written agreement, by which he bound himself to conduct us to Mushat, and then return to Semowha and forward our servants and baggage. We proposed setting out the next night, accompanied by Isha, the father of our linguist, who goes with us as an interpreter, to assist us as much as possible, being well acquainted with the customs of the country we were to travel through. The honest governor, on paying us another visit, took a fancy to a turban, which we gave him. I mention this as a convincing proof that these gentry are never satisfied.'

The description of the habitations at Sebya, an Arabian town, deserves to be mentioned. They are long arched huts, made of reeds, curiously seamed, or tied together. The one occupied by the travellers was raised upon pillars of reeds and sticks;

sticks; every alternate pillar being formed entirely of reeds. The rooms contain twenty pillars; distant from each other about the space of a yard. The arches of reeds and rafters rest on the top of the pillars. The floors are laid with mats, which, when any person goes in to sit, drink coffee, and smoke their pipes or nargils, have carpets spread on them, and a hole made near the entrance for the fire, at which the coffee, according to the Arab custom, was roasted and boiled.

The subsequent extract merits also the attention of those who have any view of performing this journey.

About two o'clock this morning we got into a muslock, to go, as we supposed, to Dewanee Huskar, and from thence to Mushat, but soon perceived we were taking a bye way into another part of Sebya, where we were to wait till night, for an opportunity to slip away by water. Accordingly we got into a small hut, where we remained till dusk, when two ill-looking Arabs came in and sat with us. In a short time our sciad, with the master of the house, went out, to concert measures for our departure, and gave out that we intended to proceed by land. The Arabs now eyed us with particular attention, and asked many impertinent questions, which we did not deign to answer as they wished, for, by some significant gestures, they seemed highly displeased; they got up, and one, who had a musket in his hand, had but just got out of the door, when he squatted on his haunches, and presented the piece at us. From the nature of the place, we were sensible such behaviour could not be resented, we therefore submitted to the insult; the man, however, did not fire. A gentleman of our party was much agitated, and could not refrain from calling out for assistance, for the impropriety of which we severely rebuked him. This the other Arab observing, seemed inclined to take advantage of, by clapping his hand on his sword; but a by-stander, stopping him, by dint of persuasion prevailed on them to quit the hut; at which time our sciad returned, from whom we learned, that he had likewise spoken to them, and that all was quiet again. Shortly after we had eaten supper, eight armed Arabs came in, took up our little baggage, and conveyed it into two muslocks, on board of which we also got, and, at an amazing rate, passed an extensive town built on each side of the river; and were tracked and paddled during the night, at least at the rate of five miles an hour, passing sometimes through creeks much obstructed by reeds and weeds, at other times on the river, by which means we happily escaped many of the thieves that infest those parts, and avoided Lemloon, where they generally resort. This route I would wish to recommend to all travellers, in preference to the nearer one by Lemloon, those parts being infested by a lawless banditti, who subsist chiefly by plunder and rapine. Those that travel this way, and should they see these few remarks I have made, and think them worth remembering,

I would advise, on their arrival at Semowha, to apply immediately to some sciad, to forward them in a musslook, supposing them to be encumbered with but little baggage, and only two servants, through the way before directed; by which they will escape, in all probability, the robbers, and arrive in three days at Hilla; they will likewise avoid the impositions of the governor of Semowha, and his custom-master: but, whenever you propose to put yourself under the direction of any sciad, at Semowha, it must be done without the privity of the governor, or any one else; and if you bind the sciad, under his hand, to conduct you, every trust may be reposed in him; and in every transaction with any Arab, it is absolutely necessary to bind him under a written obligation.'

One of the most beautiful places described by this journalist is Latichea, a small sea-port town in Syria, with the country between it and Aleppo. This country, we are informed, contains some scenes the most romantic that can be imagined: such as high hills covered with myrtles, steep precipices, natural cascades, well cultivated vallies, crowned with the gifts of Ceres, beautiful fruit gardens, and plantations of mulberry trees, with several pleasant villages interspersed.

On quitting the continent of Asia, the travellers visited the island of Cyprus, which is represented as extremely unhealthy, though affording an excellent species of wine, and great quantities of cotton. The air of Rhodes, where they next arrived, is reckoned very salubrious, and the country is exceedingly pleasant, cloathed with trees and herbage almost perpetually green. Passing by Scarponto, Candia, and the Venetian islands, they arrived on the sixth of October, at Otranto, of their reception at which place we meet with the following account.

'Our boats coming to anchor, information was immediately given to the deputies of the health office, who in about half an hour attended, with a doctor to examine us, and desired us to come on shore to the office, which stands close to the beach. On our arrival, we were conducted into a room so full of smoak, occasioned by a fire made with straw, that we were almost suffocated, which we were informed, was to take off any infectious smell that might issue either from our persons or clothes; a man was likewise placed between us and the people, with a long stick to prevent our too near approach. The bills of health, and letters for this place, were then demanded of us, which we placed at the end of a cleft stick, held by one of the deputies for that purpose, who conveyed them by that means over the fire, where they were suspended a considerable time, and afterwards examined; they then interrogated the boatmen, as to the ports we had touched at last, swearing them to the truth on a stick made in the form

of a cross, the usual way, in those places, of administering an oath to a Greek, as they will not suffer them to touch a book, for fear of infection. The next ceremony was the doctor's examining the people, by ordering them to beat themselves in different parts of the body, which being done, our parole of honour was demanded to the following queries :

' Firstly, whether we had touched at any ports in Turkey since we left Corfu ?

' Secondly, whether we laboured under any pestilential disorder, ? and,

' Thirdly, if we were in perfect health ?

' Having answered these questions in the negative, we were permitted to perform the accustomed quarantine at this port, which we were told would be twenty-eight days. The fees of office were now demanded by the deputies, which amounted to five Venetian sequins ; and, there being no Lazaretto here, a house was ordered for us at the distance of a mile from the city, to which place we were conducted by the deputies, attended by two men as guards, to prevent us from stirring out before the expiration of the quarantine, unless attended by one of the deputies, which is a favour very seldom granted, without they are very well paid for it ; but as we came prepared for every thing of this kind, we had not the least doubt, but we should prevail on them to grant us every indulgence in their power ; but so severe are their laws against a breach of the rules of quarantine, that any person so offending, is liable to be put to death by the first person who meets him ; and, indeed, this severity is not to be wondered at, when it is considered how much Italy has suffered by that dreadful malady the plague. The several letters of recommendation we had brought with us, to some of the principal inhabitants, having been properly smocked by the deputies and delivered, we were presently waited on by the gentlemen to whom they were addressed, who very civilly offered us their services ; and in signor Fedelle Massari, a merchant of this place, we found a friend, who kindly undertook to transact all our affairs, and to supply us with every necessary we might want during our confinement ; and, through this friend's interest with the governor, we were ordered to be removed to a larger house, which had a tolerable garden, and was pleasantly situated close to the sea ; this undoubtedly rendered our situation much more comfortable, particularly the having a place to walk about in. His excellency the archbishop of Otranto, to whom we were well recommended, being absent on a visit at Lecce, a city within his diocese, about thirty miles from hence, we were, the day after our arrival, visited by his reverend vicar general, who, in his name, welcomed us to Otranto, and politely offered to supply us with every thing from the palace of the archbishop, to whom he had sent the letters we brought. The same day we received a letter from his excellency, informing us of the receipt of ours, and

expressing much concern at his absence from Otranto; but hoped he should be able to return by the expiration of our quarantine, that he might have the pleasure of receiving us at his palace; and in the mean time, desired us to make no ceremony of sending for every thing we might want from thence, he having ordered the steward of his household to attend us daily to receive our orders. Such a piece of condescension, from a man of his rank and quality, was of the most infinite service to us, as it made the deputies, who were a needy marquis and a citizen of Otranto, and likewise the guards, pay no small attention to our requests, and, in some measure, prevented their extorting money from us for their indulgencies.

The whole of this journey is distinctly related; and how far such a narrative of the manners of barbarous countries may be found useful to travellers, will appear from the following remarkable anecdote, extracted from the preface.

The celebrated Aaron Hill, when in Egypt, had the curiosity to examine a catacomb; he was accompanied in his expedition by two other gentlemen, and conducted by a guide, (one of the natives of the country.) They at length arrived at the spot, and without taking notice of some fellows who were sauntering about the place, they descended by ropes into the vault. No sooner were they let down, than they were presented with a spectacle which struck them with terror: two gentlemen, apparently starved to death, lay before them. One of these unhappy victims had a tablet in his hand, on which was written, in pathetic language, the story of their lamentable fate: it seems they were brothers of rank and family in Venice, and having, in the course of their travels, entrusted themselves with one of the natives, for the purpose of visiting the inside of the catacomb, the perfidious villain had left them there to perish. The danger to which Mr. Hill and his friends were exposed, instantly alarmed them; they had scarce read the shocking tale, when looking up, they beheld their inhuman guide, assisted by two others whom they had seen near the spot, closing the entrance into the vault. They were now reduced to the utmost distress, however they drew their swords, and were determined to make some desperate effort to rescue themselves from a scene so truly dreadful. With this resolution, they were groping about at random in the dark, when they were startled at the groans of some one seemingly in the agonies of death; they attended to the dismal sound, and at length, by means of a glimmering light from the top of the catacomb, they saw a man just murdered; and a little beyond they discovered his inhuman murderers, flying with the utmost precipitation. They pursued them immediately, and though they were not able to come up with them, they however had the good fortune to reach the opening through which these wretches escaped out of the cavern, before they had time to roll the stone on the top of it. Thus Mr. Hill and his friends were by a miracle saved.



*Observations on the Tea and Window Act, and on the Tea Trade.*  
*By Richard Twining. 8vo, 1s. 6d. Cadell.*

**I**N this pamphlet Mr. Twining first considers the cause and the intent of the Commutation-bill; and afterwards endeavours to show, not only in what respects it has hitherto failed, but the causes of that failure. With regard to the important object, the suppression of smuggling, he observes that it is yet too soon to judge. The unlawful tea which was in the kingdom when this bill passed into a law, was not, by that law, to be annihilated: and the tea which was upon the continent, and which had been imported thither for the express purpose of supplying this island, was not likely to be diverted, even by that reduction of price at which the bill aimed, from its original destination. Besides, if the diligence of smugglers was capable of being increased, it would naturally be so for a time, in consequence of an act which threatened their final destruction. Mr. Twining therefore very judiciously declares, that he is neither alarmed by the temporary increase of smuggling, nor elevated by its temporary cessation. But he looks forward to the establishment of such moderate prices of tea in this country, as shall prevent any foreign nation from importing that commodity from China, for our use; perhaps for its own.

We have the satisfaction to learn from this well-informed writer, that smuggling has already received a very material check; notwithstanding large quantities of tea are occasionally landed on the coast. It is however his opinion, that if the high price of congou and fouchong teas continue, smuggling will continue in the same proportion.

The causes of the present failure, in the reduction of the price of tea, have been repeatedly ascribed to the minister, the East India company, and the tea-dealers; but Mr. Twining imputes them to the artifices of smugglers, and the scarcity of tea throughout the kingdom; and he is at much pains to establish this opinion by a narrative of facts, particularly of such as tend to exculpate the tea-dealers. He afterwards considers two other charges, of a different nature, which have been brought against the same body of men, viz. the mixing and adulterating of teas. The former of these practices he vindicates as an act of expediency; and as his arguments may afford our readers some information relative to the mysteries of the tea-trade, we shall extract what is advanced on this subject.

\* If the mixing of tea is a crime, and an imposition upon the public, I readily confess that I have a multitude of crimes

and impositions to answer for; and that my good father and grandfather little merited those fair characters which they left behind them, and for which I have ever respected their memories. I will make to the public a family confession; and I hope I shall obtain from the public a family absolution.

In my grandfather's time—for it is a tale to which I have often willingly attended, whatever the reader may do—it was the custom for ladies and gentlemen to come to the shop, and to order their own teas.—The chests used to be spread out, and when my grandfather had mixed some of them together, in the presence of his customers, they used to taste the tea: and the mixing was varied till it suited the palates of the purchasers. At that time of day, no person would have liked the tea, if it had not been mixed. The custom of the purchasers tasting tea in this manner was seldom practised in my father's time: now, it is scarcely ever practised: but the old custom of mixing teas has been uniformly continued: and if I must now lay it aside, I can only say, that I have been learning a lesson, which is not very easily learned, to little purpose. I think however that the custom only requires proper explanation to be approved. Throw off the veil of mystery, and many things which were before alarming, appear to be perfectly harmless.

Whoever understands tea, and clears home, for example, twenty chests of hyson, will find, upon tasting them separately and accurately, that some have rather too much flavour, and are therefore coarse, some have too little, and are therefore weak; and that others have—perhaps like those who are to drink them—some little peculiarity, which a proper union will totally remove. By making a judicious mixture out of these chests, a better tea may be got, than any of the chests, taken singly, could afford. Besides, if this custom were not to be practised, it would be impossible to preserve that similarity of tea, at any given price, which every dealer must preserve, if he means to give satisfaction to his customer. The pound of tea which he bought out of one of the twenty chests to-day, might perhaps be approved: but if he comes to-morrow, that chest may be gone, and another neither is, nor of course can, without mixing, be made like it. As to imposition, if the tea, when mixed, be good, and honestly worth the price which is required for it, who is imposed upon? Who will complain? If the tea, though taken out of a single chest, be not good, and not worth the money which is asked for it, will not every person think himself imposed upon? Will not every person complain? I hope then that the tea-dealer who fairly and anxiously mixes his chests of genuine tea together, in order, not to impose upon his customers, but to give them satisfaction, will no longer be ranked among the adulterators of tea.

I have confined myself to the instance of my own practice, because I have no right to speak with equal freedom, and equal certainty, of the practice of others: so far however from in-  
tending

tending to lay claim to the sole possession of the art of mixing, I verily believe it is, and always was, generally practised. There is indeed one species of tea—I mean bloom—which though it actually improves other teas, when properly mixed with them, would, by itself, be almost universally disliked. If, after all, any person should prefer his own opinion in this matter to that of the tea-dealers, and would be better pleased with his tea, if it came out of a single chest, than if it were mixed, he may certainly have it so.'

The other accusation, or that of adulterating tea, relates to a practice so extremely iniquitous that it merits the severest reprehension. Mr. Twining, upon the authority of a gentleman who is said to have made very accurate enquiries with regard to this subject, has also disclosed to the public the infamous arts of adulteration. These are such as cannot but excite the most indignant sentiments in every reader: and though we approve the ingenuousness with which Mr. Twining has communicated this information, we should not have stained our Review with the recital of such *Syagian* preparations, were we not of opinion that the publication of those abominable frauds is more likely to operate in the way of prevention than of incitement. The following are the prescriptions.

"Method of making smouch with ash tree leaves, to mix with black teas.—When gathered they are first dried in the sun, and then baked, they are next put upon a floor and trod upon until the leaves are small, then sifted and steeped in copperas, with sheeps dung; after which, being dried on a floor, they are fit for use."

"Another mode.—When the leaves are gathered they are boiled in a copper with copperas and sheeps dung; when the liquor is strained off, they are baked and trod upon, until the leaves are small, after which they are fit for use."

"The quantity manufactured at a small village, and within eight or ten miles thereof, cannot be ascertained; but is supposed to be about twenty tons in a year.—One man acknowledges to have made six hundred weight in every week, for six months together."

"The fine is sold at 4*l.* 4*s.* per cwt. equal to 9*d.* per lb."

"The coarse, 2*l.* 2*s.* ditto, ditto, 4½*d.* ditto."

"Elder buds are manufactured in some places, to represent fine teas."

"This iniquitous trade has been carried on a long time: though not in so extensive a way as within these few years. In the 11th Geo. I. cap. 30, sect. 5, it is enacted, "That the dealer in tea, or manufacturer, or dyer thereof, who shall counterfeite or adulterate tea; or shall alter, fabricate, or manufacture it with *terra japonica*, or with any other drug or drugs

whatsoever, or shall mix with tea any leaves, other than leaves of tea, [thus, in the time of Geo. I. real tea was allowed to be mixed with real tea], or other ingredients whatsoever, shall forfeit the sum of one hundred pounds."

"It is also recited, in the 4th of Geo. II. cap. 14, sect. 11, "That several ill-disposed persons do frequently dye, fabricate, or manufacture, very great quantities of sloe leaves, liquorish leaves, and the leaves of tea that have before been used, or the leaves of other trees, shrubs, or plants, in imitation of tea, and do likewise mix, colour, stain, and dye such leaves, and likewise tea, with terra japonica, sugar, molosses, clay, logwood, and with other ingredients, and do sell and vend the same as true and real tea, to the prejudice of the health of his majesty's subjects, the diminution of the revenue, and to the ruin of the fair trader:" and the dealer in, or seller of, such "falsified" tea, is to forfeit the sum of ten pounds for every pound weight.

"It appears from the 17th of Geo. III. cap. 29, "that this trade had increased to a very great degree, to the injury and destruction of great quantities of timber, woods, and underwoods, the prejudice of the health of his majesty's subjects, the diminution of the revenue, the ruin of the fair trader, and to the encouragement of idleness:" and, by the same act, the seller or manufacturer of such tea is to forfeit five pounds per pound weight; or upon non-payment of that sum, be committed to prison, for any time not exceeding twelve months.

"Hitherto government has not been able to suppress this trade: but, when the smuggling of real tea shall claim less of their attention, I hope they will exert themselves with vigour, and put a stop to the manufacture of English tea.

"It is, then, sufficiently apparent, that there is such a thing as adulterated tea: there is plenty of it: and the public may naturally enquire how they are to avoid it. My answer is, by buying their tea of reputable tea-dealers, who are, I dare say, to be found in every part of the kingdom; and by avoiding those dealers of a different description, who offer their teas to sale at lower prices than those at which legal and genuine teas can be afforded."

Mr. Twining afterwards proceeds to consider the principal objections that have been made to the tea-act, with the means of rendering it productive of the purposes for which it was framed. He observes that the present failure of the bill is to be corrected by lowering the prices of tea, until they correspond with those which were held out to the public. This, he thinks, can be effected by one method only; which is, by the company's having an ample quantity in this kingdom. Let them but have this, says he, and the smuggler must inevitably give way. He is however of opinion, that the company cannot have from China a sufficient quantity of each species of tea

tea before the year 1786 : but he observes that there are already large quantities of tea upon the continent : more are expected to arrive there ; and from this stock, the East India company ought, if possible, to supply themselves. This method, which is clearly founded in good policy, would certainly be productive of advantageous effects ; for by purchasing the foreign teas, not only will the legal market be furnished with that supply which it so much stands in need of, but the illegal market will be deprived of the resource by which it is supported.

Having laid before our readers this account of Mr. Twining's Observations, a regard to justice obliges us to acknowledge, in the most explicit terms, both the zeal and the discernment which he has so remarkably manifested, by the attention bestowed on this subject. His habits of life have afforded him the most favourable opportunities of acquiring information in whatever relates to the tea-trade ; and at a time which peculiarly called for the aid of such knowledge, he has contributed his experience towards the interests of the community, in a manner so unreserved, so judicious, and at the same time so modest, though not diffident, as reflects great credit, not only upon his understanding, but his public virtue.

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*Remarks on the Report of the East India Directors, respecting the Sale and Prices of Tea. By Richard Twining. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Cadell.*

WITH respect to any other mercantile subject, we are of opinion that the greater part of our readers would excuse us from entering upon any detail of prices, calculations, and, in general, all technical circumstances ; but when tea, when all-subduing tea is the object of enquiry, did we appear not to bestow sufficient attention upon it, we should most certainly incur the censure of the politest circles in the kingdom. We therefore consider ourselves as under the necessity of exhibiting a more full account of the pamphlet before us, than the nature of such commercial publications might otherwise require : and we are glad to find that the great intelligence discovered by this author, relative to the tea-trade, is likely to render the narrative more interesting to the public.

Mr. Twining admits that the East India company was liberal in putting up, at the first sale, much more tea than had been enjoined by the act of parliament ; and that the company might, perhaps, reasonably think, a priori, that the quantity would be sufficient. He cannot, however admit, that

‘ that the company has abundantly fulfilled the intentions of the legislature, in point of supplying the market with a *sufficient* quantity of tea.’ ‘ They have indeed, says he, done more than fulfil the bare *direction*, but I shall never think they have fulfilled the *intention* of the legislature, or that the market has been supplied with a sufficient quantity of tea, till the price is reduced as low as it ought to be.’ Mr. Twining observes that the December sale, though it contains half a million more than the quantity mentioned in the act; and though it might be sufficient to keep the prices right, if it found them so, is by no means sufficient to effect that reduction which ought to take place. If the directors should say, that their stock of teas would not enable them to make a larger sale, especially of congou and fouchong, where the excess principally is, he acknowledges that their plea is founded in fact. But he observes, it is one thing to say that they *could not* put up a sufficient quantity, and another thing to say that they *have* done it.

In treating of the account of the saving alledged to have arisen upon teas, according to the statement of the Report, in which the annual consumption is estimated at ten, eleven, twelve, thirteen, and fourteen millions, our author makes the following observations.

‘ The annual average consumption of tea, which paid duty, was 4,889,390 pounds weight. To whatever sum the actual reduction of price upon that quantity of tea shall amount, that sum will certainly be saved. If the directors intended to shew the saving which would result from a larger quantity, they ought not to have reckoned any more duty-paid tea than 4,889,390 pounds: and they should have calculated the deficiency at the price of smuggled tea. If, for instance, the directors wished to shew what effect the new plan would have, upon a supposition that the East India company were to sell 12 millions of teas annually, at the present prices, they should have contrasted the amount of 12 millions at those prices, with the joint amount of about five millions of tea at the old average prices of duty-paid tea, and seven millions at the old average prices of smuggled tea. Instead of doing this, they reckon the whole 12 millions at the price of old duty-paid tea; and having thus obtained a vast and imaginary sum of saving, they give the public reason to look for it at the hands of the tea-dealer. But to hold out such large savings as never will, never can, be obtained; and to insinuate blame to others, if they be not obtained, is not less an imposition upon the public than unfair and ungenerous treatment of the tea-dealers.

‘ Whatever sum the public, or rather the former consumers of duty-paid tea may have saved upon the last sale, it is certain that they have saved upwards of 150,000*l.* less than they ought to

to have saved; and if I include, as I think I may be allowed to do, the sum to which the discount upon those teas would have amounted, the saving upon the teas of last sale will be full 200,000*l.* less than it should have been! As the report holds forth such abundant information relative to the saving of the public, and the profit of the tea-dealer, I wonder it did not mention the gain of the company, with which the reporters must have been at least as well acquainted.'

Mr. Twining agrees with the Report as to the probability that at least as much tea was smuggled as paid duty; but he thinks, that in the clause immediately subsequent, the Report has not stated the subject fairly. It is there said, 'in which case only half the *kingdom* contributed to the former revenue from tea: the *whole kingdom* contributes to the window tax.' The fact is, our author observes, that not half the *kingdom*, but only half the *consumers of tea*, contributed to the former revenue from that article; and that nothing like *all* the *kingdom*, or *all* the *consumers of tea*, contribute to the window tax. He farther remarks, that a very considerable number of the consumers of tea do not pay any window tax at all, and yet consume those species of tea, upon which almost the whole saving (or, at least upwards of five-sixths of it) occurs; whilst the remaining part of the former consumers of legal tea, who are, according to the Report, to contribute the sum of three hundred thousand pounds, drink those species of tea from which not even one-sixth of the saving arises; the rest of the window tax being made up, not as the Report seems to imply, by *all*, but by a *part* only of those who before contributed nothing. Mr. Twining however adds, that though the distribution of the window tax, and the saving upon tea, do by no means fall in the manner implied by the Report, yet, in his opinion, they fall, in general, as they ought: for that the principal part of the saving is enjoyed by the poor, and the principal part of the tax, on the contrary, falls upon the rich.

Mr. Twining affirms, that he never remembers fresher and better teas, than those with which the public may at present be supplied. This assertion, from a person of so much experience in the trade, reflects a very unfavourable presumption, on the conduct either of the company, or the tea-dealers, considering the general complaint, at present, of the bad quality of teas. We are sorry to find that the company is not exempted from a share of this imputation, by continuing to expose bad teas to sale, rather than submit to the loss which would accrue from destroying them.

'When tea is refused at one sale, says our author, it is usually, if not always, put up at some subsequent sale; and it is

is then put up for sale after sale, till it finds, at length, a purchaser. I mention this circumstance for two reasons: the first is, that I think the report implies that which is not fact: the other is, that I have long thought this an evil which ought to be corrected. Tea which is damaged, or very bad in quality, ought never to be exposed to sale by the East India company. Indeed any person would suppose, from the following passage in the report, that the company never did sell tea of this description; for the report says—"perhaps indeed the prize teas (part of which were very bad and damaged) may, to a few dishonest dealers, have afforded a mixture inferior to any tea of the company's importing; but this means of adulteration must be soon exhausted." I rather think the public will be surpris'd when I tell them, that the company do put up to sale a great deal of tea which is "very bad and damaged." It often happens that a chest of this tea is in the same lot with a chest or two of better tea; and, in this case, the good sells the bad, or that which, in fact, is not of a "merchable quality." As the company have now confessed, that such tea is made a dishonest use of, and that better tea is adulterated with it, I think they must allow, that it ought never to be put up to sale. It is well known that when this tea does find purchasers, they too frequently offer it to the public under the title of good tea; for if they were to call it bad, they would sell but little of it. Thus are the public deceived; and thus is the fair trader, who asks a higher price for the tea which he calls good, and which actually is so, materially injured. It is possible that the prize tea, which has given rise to this observation, might be even worse than the worst of the company's tea; but that will not make the company's tea fit to be sold. I am not, however, so unreasonable as to expect that the company should get no compensation for their damaged tea: I would wish their trade to be, upon the whole, a trade of profit. For some of this tea, I believe the company are paid by the owners of their ships; and as to the remainder, the tea which is not damaged should pay for that which is. It will be more advantageous to the public to consent to this, than to drink a miserable infusion of decayed and damaged leaves. I would, however, distinguish between that tea which has accidentally been damaged after the company bought it, and that which, when they bought it, was good for nothing. There is no reason why the public should be answerable for such injudicious purchases of the company. I am sorry to observe, that there is, at present, too much occasion for this remark; for, notwithstanding the company have of late imported very fresh and good teas, they have also imported, within these few years, and even this year, very bad. The principal part of the Single tea, in the present sale, to which the dealers have objected, does not appear to have received the least injury in its passage, but to have been absolutely unfit for use when it was bought.

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Nor can such purchases be justified by the company's saying, that their investments could not be completed without them. I cannot allow that any investment is to be completed by the purchase of such miserable trash. If the Chinese find that the English supra-cargoes will buy such tea, they will certainly take care that no large investment should ever be completed without it; but let them perceive that the English will not buy it, and I think they will contrive to produce better.

The company do indeed take the damaged tea out of those chests which appear to be considerably injured by salt-water; and the tea so taken out is burnt. But this business is performed by persons who do it very inaccurately. If they find any tea which is actually wet, or which, from the wet it formerly received, is caked together, that tea is taken out of the chest; but the remainder which is left in, and which is exposed to sale, has often received so much injury as to be unfit for use. A great deal of tea, which is damaged, musty, and mouldy, escapes the notice of those persons who are employed in separating the damaged from the saleable tea.—When the tea-dealers or brokers see the teas which are to be exposed to sale, they discover these bad chests; but, notwithstanding the tea is indisputably musty or mouldy, and perhaps worse than a great deal of that which is condemned to be burnt, it is still exposed to sale.

Mr. Twining observes, it may perhaps be thought that he is acting the part of a very unskillful advocate for the tea-trade, whilst he is exposing the badness of some tea. But he thinks the public will never entertain a better opinion of tea, than when they perceive that the persons who deal in it, and who are the best judges of it, are careful to prevent the sale of any which is unfit for public use. 'The tea-dealers, says he, have done this, upon the present occasion: and I doubt not but they will continue to do it.' We sincerely wish that this assertion may be well founded; for we should be sorry to think, that Mr. Twining had introduced it only with the view to obviate an injurious charge, of his being 'a very unskillful advocate for the tea-trade.'

Mr. Twining, to prevent all suspicion of his having intentionally misrepresented any part of the Report, has annexed a copy of it to his Remarks. We shall conclude this article with observing, that amidst the patriotic declarations of the directors on one hand; and, on the other, of the body of tea-dealers, under the name of their zealous and intelligent representative Mr. Twining, we wish to see the public derive some more essential benefit, relative to the prices and quality of tea, than can result from the mutual recrimination of those interested parties. We must however do this spirited author  
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the justice to acknowledge, that his Remarks have a natural tendency to produce advantageous effects. Of accomplishing this they could not fail, if the directors and the tea-dealers would honestly and vigorously co-operate in laying 'the ax to the root of the tree;' we mean not for the purpose of destroying the tea-plant (for that, we are afraid, would be considered as a national calamity); but with the view of diminishing the price, and preserving the purity of a beverage become so much the object of almost universal indulgence.

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*Observations on the Rights and Duty of Juries, in Trials for Libels: together with Remarks on the Origin and Nature of the Law of Libels. By Joseph Towers, LL.D. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Debrett.*

**I**N trials for libels, whether the jury have a right to judge of the law as well as the fact, is a question which has been much agitated for some time, and the determination of it, on either side, seems not likely to afford general satisfaction. The author of the Observations before us espouses, with great zeal, the popular doctrine that the jury has such a right. In endeavouring to establish this principle, he takes a wide view of the several opinions incidentally delivered by judges, and the sentiments maintained by political and legal writers on this subject. The chief argument in support of this doctrine is, what he calls 'a very ancient, and certainly a very rational idea; namely; that judges, appointed by the king, may have an improper bias on their minds, in causes between the crown and the subject.' We shall readily admit that the jealousy of such an influence is not unnatural in a free constitution; but we may venture to affirm, that the judges being appointed by the king, was a circumstance which could less excite suspicion of undue influence, than that of their being formerly removeable at the royal pleasure. Dr. Towers must know sufficiently well both the change, and the importance of that change, which has of late taken place in the situation of the judges; and we therefore think that he argues disingenuously, when he affects to represent the ancient and present times as exposed to equal danger from any bias on the minds of the judges.

Among the instances adduced by Dr. Towers, of those who, in trials for libels, have denied the power of the judges to extend to the determination of the point of law, is the case of the famous Lilburne, who addressed the judges thus:

'The jury by law are not only judges of fact, but of law also; and you that call yourselves judges of the law, are not  
more

more but Norman intruders; and in deed, and in truth, if the jury please, are no more but cyphers, to pronounce their verdict.

Though we condemn, the severity of the star-chamber court, in the affair of Lilburne, we cannot allow that this case has great weight towards confirming our author's opinion, that the interposition of the judges, in trials of libel, is actually a usurpation. Lilburne's invective, that the judges were 'Norman intruders,' is meant to convey an insinuation, that before the Norman Conquest, the trials, in respect to libels, were otherwise determined. But we believe it will be difficult to prove, that before the epoch of the Conquest, there ever was any trial for a libel in this country. The invention of printing is the period which laid the foundation for this species of offence; and when Dr. Towers alleges that his doctrine is conformable to the practice of juries in times more remote than the middle of the fifteenth century, he ascends to an æra where it is impossible to find either common or statute law upon the subject.

We cannot help being of opinion, that this author discovers a want of candour in an observation which he makes on Blackstone's Commentaries. The learned author of that work had expressed himself in the following terms on the subject of libels.

"In a criminal prosecution," he says, "the tendency which all libels have to create animosities, and to disturb the public peace, is the sole consideration of the law. And, therefore, in such prosecutions, the only *facts* to be considered are, first, the making or publishing of the book or writing; and secondly, whether the matter be criminal: and if both these points are against the defendant, then the offence against the public is complete."

In a later edition of the Commentaries, Mr. justice Blackstone altered the passage here cited, and inserted the word *points* instead of *facts*. Dr. Towers represents this amendment as entirely a political accommodation. 'It is manifest, he adds, that the original and uncorrupted opinion of Blackstone was, that the criminality of a book or paper, whether it was, or was not, a libel, was a question of *fact*, and not a question of *law*.' The argument that an original opinion should be best founded, seems not very conformable either to reason or truth; and with regard to its being *uncorrupted*, we know too well the clearness of understanding, and the integrity, with which the learned judge was endowed, to suffer the insinuation to pass unnoticed, that his opinion was not equally uncorrupted when he made the alteration above mentioned.

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The following passage in the Observations is plausible, but, when strictly examined, seems not to be perfectly just.

‘The doctrines which are propagated concerning libels, and the extent of the power of juries in trials for the publication of them, involve in them various absurdities. Thus though it is affirmed, that juries are incapable of determining what is, or what is not, a libel, yet in every prosecution of a bookseller or printer for a libel, it is always taken for granted, that they are capable of determining this intricate and knotty point. For they are never, in any case, allowed to plead ignorance on this subject, as an exculpation of themselves for having sold or printed what is called a libel. No bookseller or printer is permitted to urge, in his own justification, that he did not know that any book or pamphlet, with the publication of which he is charged, was a libel. Now, to take it for granted, that every common bookseller or printer, is a judge of what is, or of what is not, a libel; and yet to assert, that twelve jurymen, persons of the same rank, are incapable of determining it, is to the last degree preposterous and absurd. But many booksellers have been pilloried, and otherwise severely punished, for selling seditious libels; and some printers have been hanged for printing treasonable libels.’

The guilt annexed to the printing or publishing of a libel is no more than what is imputed to the person who commits any other trespass; and to allow ignorance to be pleaded as an excuse for a crime, would be opening a door by which almost any law, considering the mode of promulgation, might be violated with impunity.

In prosecuting the argument above recited, the author thus proceeds:

‘We are told, that neither common, nor special juries, are competent to the decision of what is, or what is not, a libel. But grand juries, it seems, possess more sagacity. They must certainly possess some knowledge upon this subject: for it is allowed, that they have a right to find bills of indictment against libellers.’

In this passage Dr. Towers, for the purpose of confirming a supposed absurdity, has exhibited a contrast, which, in our opinion, is neither candid nor just. It is not required of grand juries that they should enter minutely into the evidence of such causes as are brought before them. Their investigation is only preparatory to a subsequent trial; and it is sufficient for the purpose intended, if, upon a general enquiry, the evidence produced before the grand jury be such as may seem to render a farther investigation expedient. But the contrast which the author has drawn, afforded a very convenient opportunity for introducing the case of the dean of St. Asaph,

Afaph, with a view to which the Observations in general seem to be calculated. /

We readily agree with this author, that with regard to libels, the law is in general less definite and precise than on other subjects. Libels are not of so remote origin as to fall within the prescription of common law; and the authority by which the earlier instances of the kind were determined, as being long since abolished (we mean the court of star-chamber) is not the most satisfactory. But the attempt towards introducing of innovations, without any apparent necessity, appears to us a political empiricism, which, however well intended, may prove more injurious than beneficial to the public tranquillity. Dr. Towers, we are aware, will not admit that the attempt to which we allude is really an innovation. He will maintain that the right of juries to judge of the law, as well as the fact, is fully established by ancient usage. But in support of this opinion, we must confess, we do not find any proof. Many declarations to this effect indeed are cited by the author before us; but they seem too vague to be considered as of sufficient authority in a contested point. Had Dr. Towers endeavoured to maintain his hypothesis upon the principle of analogy, the foundation would, in our opinion, have been less liable to objection; though, even in this case, the peculiar nature of libels might perhaps exempt them from the general mode of determination in all other cases. Dr. Towers, however, not content with urging the expediency of a general verdict, in cases of libel, would excite the public to insist that juries have the sole and absolute right of determination, both in point of fact and of law. We cannot avoid observing, that in prosecuting the subject, he discovers much warmth, uses many unnecessary repetitions, and has frequently recourse to anonymous authorities, which, in disquisitions of this nature, cannot be entitled to much regard.

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*Select Works of the Emperor Julian, and some Pieces of the Sophist Libanius. By John Duncombe, M. A. 2 Vols. 8vo. 10s. in Boards. Cadell.*

THE abbé de la Bletterie published, in 1735, the Life of the Emperor Julian. To this he added, in 1748, the History of the Emperor Jovian, with translations of some of the pieces of Julian, in two volumes octavo. Both these works are written with great elegance, candour, and impartiality. The former was translated into English, in 1746, by Mrs. Williams\*, a blind lady, assisted by two sisters of the

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\* Author of a volume of miscellanies, in which are several pieces by her friend Dr. Johnson.

name of Wilkinson, under the inspection of Mr. Markland, Mr. Clarke, and Mr. Bowyer, who improved it with many useful notes.

Julian was born at Constantinople in 331. His father Julius Constantius, and most of his relations, were massacred by the order of the emperor Constantius. His half-brother Gallus was banished into Ionia, and Julian sent to Nicomedia, where he was educated a Christian by the bishop Eusebius †, and officiated as a lecturer in the church. About the age of twenty, he was perverted to paganism, by Maximus, a Platonic philosopher at Ephesus; being excited perhaps to this apostacy by his hatred for the emperor Constantius, who was a zealous Christian. It is certain, says abbé Bleterie, that Maximus predicted the empire to him; that he clearly laid before his view the extraordinary project of destroying the then reigning religion, to establish that of his ancestors; and that by the force of exhortations, flatteries, and delusions, he made him the most convinced and enthusiastic pagan that ever lived.

In 335, he was created Cæsar by Constantius. The emperors, it may be observed, gave this title to those whom they destined to the empire; that of emperor or Augustus, to those whom they actually associated with themselves in sovereign power. The title of Cæsar was properly nothing more than an adoption into the imperial family. Constantius designed Julian only for a phantom, clothed in purple, who might appear with more splendour at the head of an army, and bear the image of a sovereign from city to city. The emperor had no male children; and he now felt a remorse for the manner in which he had treated the princes of the imperial house. He believed that Julian had no reason to love him; but he hoped that the purple would make him forget what was passed, and prevent a dangerous opposition.

Soon after this appointment, Julian set out for Gaul, where he made several successful campaigns. Upon the death of Constantius, in 361, he returned to Constantinople, and restored the pagan worship. In the following year he composed his books against the Christian religion. In 363, he is said to have given orders for re-building the Temple of Jerusalem. The same year he marched against the Persians, and in a skirmish received a mortal wound, of which he died the succeeding night, aged 32.

The conduct of this emperor, with respect to the Christian religion, was artful and malignant. He abstained indeed from

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† Eusebius died about the year 342, when Julian was not above 11 years of age.

murder and the shedding of blood; but he took a course which was perhaps equally pernicious. He fomented divisions among the Christians, deprived their youth of a learned education, and stripped them of their fortunes. And whenever the Christians complained of this injurious treatment, he mocked them, sarcastically answering in these words of Christ: 'Blessed are the poor.' His orders for building the Temple of Jerusalem (if he really gave those orders) were not owing to any respect for the Jewish religion, which he treated with contempt, but a scheme to expose and subvert Christianity.

This attempt is mentioned by three contemporary writers, Gregory Nazianzen, Chrysostom, and Ambrose, bishop of Milan; by Ammianus Marcellinus\*; and afterwards by Rufinus, Socrates, Sozomen, Theodoret, Philostorgius, and others. Accordingly the truth of this piece of history is maintained by Fabricius, Witius, bishop Warburton, &c. Yet Basnage, Lardner, and some other learned writers, have doubted the fact.

The following circumstances render it improbable. 1. Julian's writings give no intimation of his actually engaging in such a scheme. In his address to the community of the Jews, he only intimates his intention to rebuild Jerusalem after his return from the Persian war; but this never happened. 2. That he should give orders for such an expensive work, and allot money for it out of the public treasury, when he was undertaking an important expedition against the Persians, is very unlikely. 3. The history of this event, as related by Christian writers, is loaded with miracles, or pretended miracles, which are incredible. 4. There was no occasion for such a providential interposition as that which Marcellinus mentions: for Julian died soon after the supposed edict. 5. Contemporary writers, who speak of the Temple, as Jerom, Prudentius, and Orosius, take not the least notice of this transaction. 6. Those who have related the story were enemies to Julian. Gregory Nazianzen wrote an outrageous invective against him; and in his narrative frequently appeals to popular stories. Chrysostom reports many things of Julian, for which he had no better authority. Ambrose lived at Milan, and relates this occurrence many years afterwards. Ammianus Marcellinus wrote his history at Rome, far from the scene of action, and has invalidated his authority, by recording several things in his history, which discover his credulity. Succeeding writers, who probably took their account from

\* Metuendi globi flammæ, prope fundamenta crebris assultibus erumpentes, secere locum, exustis aliquoties operantibus, inaccessum; hocque modo, elementa desinatus repellente, cessavit inceptum. Lib. xxiii. 1.

their predecessors, are not much to be regarded. The following idle story is so much like the miracle we are now considering, that it almost induces us to look upon both of them in the same light.

The two princes, Gallus and Julian, had undertaken to erect a church upon the place where St. Mamas, a martyr of Cæsarea in Cappadocia, was buried. This work was divided between them; and each carried on the part, that had fallen to his share, in emulation of the other. Whilst the labours of Gallus advanced, an invisible hand, it is said, opposed those of Julian. Sometimes the foundations could not be laid; sometimes the earth threw them up again. And at length the structure, carried to some height, with much time and labour, was suddenly thrown down, so that it could not possibly be completed. Gregory Nazianzen tells us, that he had this fact from those who were eye-witnesses of it; and Sozomen pretends to have heard it from those who had seen these witnesses!

Upon these, and other accounts, learned men have hesitated about this point. And indeed, though a wise man will not hastily reject the well-authenticated testimonies of grave and respectable historians, he will be very cautious in receiving accounts of miraculous interpositions; as it is certain, that many stories of this kind have been invented and propagated, in every age, from the latter part of the first century to the present, by knaves and fools, bigots and enthusiasts, to the disgrace of reason and philosophy; and (among those who cannot make a proper distinction) to the disparagement of Christianity.

As much as Julian is blacked by the Christians, he is commended by the pagan writers, for his firmness, his moderation, his superiority of understanding, and other great qualities, in which they reckon him second only to Julius Cæsar. But his credulity, his superstitious dread of omens, and his preferring the absurd rites of paganism to the Christian religion, are no proofs of his superior understanding, as a philosopher. And if all religions were alike to him, it was absurd in him, as an emperor, to attempt the abolition of the public and established religion; and, if possible, yet more absurd in him, as a general, to think of altering the religion of his army, when the bravest actions performed by it, was owing to that religion, to which they had been long attached\*.

The select works of Julian, translated by Mr. Duncombe, consist of, I. An Epistle to the Philosopher Themistius on the Dangers of Sovereign Power.

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\* Holberg's Univ. Hist. p. 149.



II. A Consolatory Oration on the Departure of Sallust, his confidential friend, who was going into Illyricum.

III. An Epistle to the Emperor Constantius.

IV. A Manifesto to the Senate and People of Athens; written soon after his being proclaimed emperor of the Gauls, and while he was marching with his army against Constantius, explaining the motives of his conduct, and fully describing the patience with which he had borne the repeated injuries and provocations of Constantius, and the great reluctance with which, by the concurrence of the army, he was exalted to the empire.

V. An Allegorical Fable. Julian has worked the crimes and misfortunes of the family of Constantine into this allegory. It forms the conclusion of the seventh oration.

VI. The Duties of a Priest, extracted from the Fragment of an Oration, or an Epistle. This piece consists of instruction, addressed by him, in quality of sovereign pontiff, to a pagan priest. Though this apostate has expressed himself with great virulence against the sacred writers; yet most of the rules, which he prescribes to his pontiffs, are formed upon the idea of what the Christian church requires of her clergy. The translator has omitted the author's 'blasphemies.'

VII. The Cæsars. Julian composed his satire after he was emperor, in 361. This is deemed the master-piece of Julian. Mr. Gibbon styles it, 'one of the most agreeable and instructive productions of ancient wit.' The abbé de la Bleterie says, 'It is a moving picture; in which the spectator sees rapidly, passing before his eyes, but without confusion, those masters of the world, despoiled of their grandeur, and reduced to their vices and their virtues. By the aid of a simple and ingenious fiction, Julian makes those, who have dishonoured the purple, disappear with ignominy; and among those, who deserve to be placed in the number of sovereigns, he chooses the most illustrious, to make them contend for pre-eminence. Though he seems to leave the question undetermined, it is sufficiently clear, that Marcus Aurelius is the hero of the piece; that Julian gives him the preference, and means to announce to the world, that he has taken that philosopher for his model. I do not think, continues this writer, that in any work so short, are to be found at once so many characters and manners, so much refinement and solidity, so much instruction, without the author's ever assuming a dogmatical tone, so much wit and pleasantry, without his ever ceasing to instruct. The work however, he allows, is not exempt from faults. Some of his raileries are frigid, others appear to be ground-

less, or too severe; and the indecent manner in which he treats his uncle Constantine the Great, is inexcusable.

In this fable, the gods and the Cæsars are supposed to be invited by Romulus to a banquet. On the appearance of the Cæsars, Silenus, Apollo, Mercury, &c. make remarks on their follies and foibles, their virtues and vices. It will be expected, that we should give an extract from this applauded performance. We shall take it from the first part, which relates to characters more known and interesting to the generality of readers.

‘As soon as the table was spread for the Cæsars, the first who appeared was Julius Cæsar. Such was his passion for glory, that he seemed willing to contend for dominion with Jupiter himself. Silenus, observing him, said, “Behold, Jupiter, one who has ambition enough to endeavour to dethrone you: he is, you see, strong and handsome, and, if he resembles me in nothing else, his head, at least, is certainly the fellow of mine.”

‘Amidst these jokes of Silenus, to which the gods paid little attention, Octavianus entered. He assumed, like a camelion, various colours, at first appearing pale, then black, dark, and cloudy, and, at last, exhibiting the charms of Venus and the Graces. In the lustre of his eyes he seemed willing to rival the sun; nor could any one encounter his looks. “Strange!” cried Silenus; “what a changeable creature is this! what mischief will he do us!” “Cease trifling,” said Apollo, “After I have consigned him to Zeno, I will exhibit him to you pure as gold. Hark ye,” added he to that philosopher; “Zeno, undertake the care of my pupil.” He, in obedience, suggesting to him a very few precepts, as if he had muttered the incantations of Zamolxis, soon rendered him wise and virtuous.

‘The third who approached was Tiberius, with a grave but fierce aspect, appearing at once both wise and martial. As he turned to sit down, his back displayed several scars, some cauteries and sores, severe stripes and bruises, scabs and tumours, imprinted by lust and intemperance. Silenus then saying,

“Far different now thou seemest than before,” in a much more serious tone, “Why so grave, my dear?” said Bacchus. “That old satyr,” replied he, “has terrified me, and made me inadvertently quote a line of Homer.” “Take care that he does not also pull your ears,” said Bacchus; “for thus, it is said, he treated a certain grammarian.” “He had better,” returned Silenus, “bemoan himself in his solitary island (meaning Capræ) and tear the face of some miserable fisherman.”

‘While they were thus joking, a dreadful monster [Caligula] appeared. The gods averting their eyes, Nemesis delivered him to the avenging Furies, who immediately threw him into Tartarus, without allowing Silenus to accost him. But on the

approach of Claudius, Silenus began to sing the beginning of the part of Demosthenes in the Knights of Aristophanes, calling Claudius. Then turning to Quirinus, "You are unjust," said he, "to invite your descendant without his freedmen, Narcissus and Pallas. But, besides them, you should also send for his wife Messalina, for without them, he appears like guards in a tragedy, mute and inanimate."

While Silenus was speaking, Nero entered, playing on his harp, and crowned with laurel. Silenus then turned to Apollo, and said, "This man makes you his model." "I shall soon uncrown him," replied Apollo: "he did not imitate me in every thing, and when he did, he was a bad imitator." Cocytus therefore instantly swept him away, divested of his crown.

After him, seeing many come crowding together, Vindex, Otho, Galba, Vitellius, Silenus exclaimed; "Where, ye gods, have ye found such a multitude of monarchs? We are suffocated with smoke; for beasts of this kind spare not even the temples of the gods." Jupiter then looked at his brother Serapis, and said, pointing to Vespasian, "send this miser, as soon as possible, out of Ægypt, to extinguish these flames. Bid his eldest son [Titus] solace himself with a prostitute, but chain his younger son [Domitian], near the Sicilian tyger."

Then came an old man [Nerva], of a beautiful aspect (for even old age is sometimes beautiful), in his manners most gentle, and in his administration mild. With him Silenus was so delighted, that he remained silent. "What!" said Mercury, "have you nothing to say of this man?" "Yes, by Jupiter," he replied; "for I charge you all with partiality, in suffering that blood-thirsty monster to reign fifteen years, but this man scarce a whole year." "Do not complain," answered Jupiter; "many good princes shall succeed him."

Trajan immediately entered, bearing on his shoulders the Getic and Parthian trophies. Silenus, observing him, said, in a low voice, but loud enough to be heard, "Our lord Jupiter must now be careful, or he will not be able to keep Ganymede to himself." After him advanced a venerable sage [Hadrian], with a long beard; an adept in music, gazing frequently on the heavens, and curiously investigating the abstrusest subjects. "What," said Silenus, "think you of this sophist? Is he looking for Antinous? If so, one of you may tell him that the youth is not here, and thus check his madness and folly." To these succeeded a man of moderation, not in venereal but political pursuits [Antoninus Pius.] Silenus, on seeing him, exclaimed, "Strange! how important is he in trifles! This old man seems to me one of those who would harangue about a pin's point."

At the entrance of two brothers, Marcus Aurelius and Lucius Verus, Silenus contracted his brow, as he could by no means jeer or deride them. Marcus in particular, though he strictly scrutinised his conduct with regard to his son and his

wife ; as to her, in his immoderate grief for her death, though she little deserved it ; as to him, in hazarding the ruin of the empire by preferring him to a discreet son-in-law, who would have made a better prince, and studied the advantage of his son more than he did himself. Notwithstanding these failings, Silenus could not but admire his exalted virtue. Thinking his son [Commodus] unworthy of any stroke of wit, he silently dismissed him. And he, not being able to support himself, or associate with the heroes, fell down to the earth.

After the Cæsars had passed in review before the gods, and among them Alexander the Great, it was agreed, that the most renowned heroes should contend for superiority ; that every one should severally speak for himself, and that the gods should give their votes. When their proper turns were assigned them, Julius Cæsar thus began :

“ It was my good fortune, O Jupiter and ye gods, to be born, after many heroes, in that illustrious city, which has extended her dominion farther than any other ; so that they all may be satisfied, if they obtain the second place. For what other city, deducing its origin from three thousand men, has, in less than six hundred years, carried its conquests to the utmost extremities of the earth ? What other nation has produced so many distinguished warriors and legislators, or such devout worshippers of the gods ? Born in a city so renowned, I surpassed, by my actions, not only my contemporaries, but all the heroes that ever lived. Of my own countrymen I know not one that will deny me the superiority. But as this Grecian is so presumptuous, which of his actions will he pretend to put in competition with mine ? His Persian trophies, perhaps, as if he knew not how many I won from Pompey. And who was the most experienced general, Pompey or Darius ? Which of them commanded the bravest troops ? Instead of the refuse of mankind, Pompey had in his army more warlike nations than were ever subject to Darius ; of Europeans, those who had often routed the hostile Asiatics, and of them the most valiant ; Italians, Illyrians, and Gauls. Having mentioned the Gauls, can the Getic exploits of Alexander be compared with my conquest of Gaul ? He passed the Danube once ; I twice passed the Rhine ; and of my German victories no one can dispute the glory. I fought with Ariovistus.

“ I was the first Roman who dared to cross the German ocean. Though this was a wonderful achievement, however it may be admired, more glorious was my intrepidity in being the first who leaped on shore. Of the Helvetic and Iberian nations I say nothing ; nor have I mentioned my actions in Gaul, where I took above three hundred towns, and defeated two millions of men. Great as these actions were, that which followed was greater and more illustrious. Being obliged to wage war with my fellow-citizens, I vanquished the unconquered

quered and invincible Romans. If we should be judged by the number of our battles, I fought thrice as many as are ascribed to Alexander by his greatest panegyrist; if by the number of towns taken, not in Asia only, but also in Europe, I reduced more. Alexander saw and traversed Ægypt; I, while I feasted there, subdued it. Will you also compare the clemency of each of us, when victorious? I pardoned my enemies, and received from them such a return as Nemesis has revenged. He never spared his enemies, nor even his friends. In particular, as you dispute the pre-eminence, and will not immediately yield to me, like the rest, you compel me to mention your cruel behaviour to the Thebans. On the contrary, how great was my humanity to the Helvetii! The cities of the former were burnt by you; the cities of the latter, burnt by their own inhabitants, were re-built by me. Which, in short, was most illustrious; your defeating ten thousand Greeks, or my repulsing the attacks of a hundred and fifty thousand Romans? Much more could I add, both of Alexander and myself; but as I never had leisure to study the art of oratory, you must excuse me, and, forming a just and impartial judgement both from what I have said, and what I have omitted, will, I doubt not, give me the superiority."

Alexander replied in a spirited harangue, which, on account of the limits of our Review, we must omit.

VIII. The Misopogon. Julian having been insulted in satires and libels by the people of Antioch, contented himself with an inoffensive mode of retaliation; composing, under the title of The Enemy of the Beard, an ironical confession of his own faults; and a severe satire on the licentious and effeminate manners of Antioch.

Two short paragraphs from this piece will be sufficient to give the reader an idea of the emperor's *pleasantries*.

'First, I will begin with my face. To this, formed by nature not over beautiful, graceful, or becoming, my own perverseness and singularity have added this long beard, to punish it, as it were, for no other reason but because nature has not made it handsome. Therefore I suffer lice to scamper about it, like beasts through a thicket: I cannot indulge myself in eating voraciously, and must be cautious of opening my mouth wide when I drink, lest I swallow as many hairs as crumbs. As for kissing, and being kissed, they give me not the least trouble.

'Yet amongst other inconveniencies of my beard, this is one, that it prevents my joining pure lips to smooth, and, I think, much sweeter lips, as was formerly observed by one, who, inspired by Pan and Calliope, made some verses on Daphnis. You say, that "it is only fit to twist into ropes." That I would readily allow, provided you could so artfully extract the bristles, as to prevent their hurting your soft and tender fingers.

Think

Think not that this offends me; for I will give you a reason why I wear a chin like a goat, instead of making it smooth and bare like those of beautiful boys, and of all women by nature lovely. You, such is the delicacy, and perhaps simplicity, of your manners, even when old, imitate your sons and daughters by studiously shaving your chins, thus displaying the man by the forehead only, and not, like me, by the cheeks. But not contented with this length of beard, my head is also nasty and seldom combed, my nails are unpared, and my fingers are usually black with ink. And, to tell you a secret, my bosom too is rough and hairy, like the mane of the lion, king of beasts, nor have I ever made it smooth, such is my meanness and illiberality. If I had any wart, I would readily disclose it, as Cimon did, but at present in truth I have none.

Another circumstance, well known to you, I will also mention. Not satisfied with such an uncomely person, I lead a very rigid life. I absent myself from the theatres, through mere stupidity; nor do I allow a play at court, such a dolt am I, except on the calends of the year, when I resemble a poor farmer bringing his rent, or taxes, to a rapacious landlord; and when I am there, I seem as solemn as at a sacrifice. As it is not long since you saw him, you may recollect the youth, the genius, and understanding of my predecessor; my way of life, so different from his, is a sufficient proof of my forwardness.

The author's purple seems to have contributed, more than any thing else, to give importance and reputation to this production. If it shewed his wit, it lessened his dignity; and was more suitable to the character of such a writer as Paul Scaron, than a Roman emperor.

Besides these pieces, the first volume comprehends a collection of epistles from Libanius to Julian. The second volume contains, 1. Epistles of Julian. 2. The Life of Libanius the Sophist, by Fabricius. 3. A Monody by Libanius on Nicomedia, destroyed by an Earthquake. 4. A Monody by Libanius, on the Daphnæan Temple of Apollo, destroyed by Fire. 5. The History of the Emperor Jovian (Julian's successor) by the Abbé de la Bleterie. 6. An Abstract of an Essay on the Rank and Power of the Roman Emperors, in the Senate, by the same. And, lastly, some additional Notes.

Though Julian's wit is often frivolous and insipid, and many of his observations trite and uninteresting, yet the publication before us may be considered as a valuable addition to our translations of the Greek and Roman classics. It gives us a true idea of this emperor's very *singular* character, and a good account of his much wiser successor, Jovian. It presents us with a general view of the customs and manners which prevailed in several parts of Europe and Asia, in the fourth century;

tury; and it throws a light on several important transactions in an obscure period of history. The comments of the learned abbé Bleterie, and those of the ingenious translator, contain such a fund of critical and historical knowledge, as cannot but be acceptable to every curious and inquisitive reader.

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*Bibliotheca Topographica Britannica. No. XVIII.* 4to. 5s.  
Nichols.

*Bibliotheca Topographica Britannica. No. XIX.* 4to. 6d.  
Nichols.

THE eighteenth number contains the history and antiquities of the two parishes of Reculver and Herne, in the county of Kent. By John Duncombe, M. A. vicar of Herne. Enlarged by subsequent communications.

The Latin name of Reculver is Regulbium\*, and the Saxon, Raculf-cester, or Raculf-minster. The castle (the building of which is ascribed by Kilburne to the emperor Severus) commanded a view, not only of the German ocean, but of the mouths of the Thames and the Medway; on which account it was used as a watch-tower, to discover the approaches of an enemy, and also as a light-house, to guide mariners, by fires kindled every night; and this purpose used to be answered by the two steeples of the church, called the sisters, or the Reculvers, which formerly served as a sea-mark for avoiding the flats or shallows in the mouth of the Thames; but by the shifting of the sands, they are now said to be no longer useful, and mariners rather depend on St. Nicholas church, or Monkton mill.

The great antiquity of this place is apparent from the vast number of Roman coins, chiefly of the lower empire, medals, vases, &c. that have been, and still continue to be found here; for Reculver, or Regulbium, was, no doubt, one of the five watch-towers or forts, as Richborough castle or Rutupia<sup>x</sup> was another, each of them commanding one of the mouths of the river Genlade, or Wantsume, which, as Bede says, then divided the isle of Thanet from the continent of Kent. This castle, which guarded the north mouth, was the Roman station of the Vetasii, and was certainly on the hill, where now stands the church, and where formerly stood the monastery†, though between the time of

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\* Regulbium, quasi reculsus, a verbo recello, particip. reculsus; quod hic maximus fuerit fluctuum recursus. Twinus de Rebus Albionis, p. 26.

† Anno 669, Egbyrhtus rex dedit Basio presbytero Raculf, in quo monasterium edificaret. Sax. Chron.

the Romans and its monastic state, it was also the site of a royal palace, not only for Ethelbert I. but for all his successors, kings of Kent.

The Roman town has been long covered by the sea, which lately threw down the remains of the north side of the old Roman wall, which surrounded the castle, and makes such rapid inroads on the cliff, that it has long been apprehended, that this noble structure and sea-mark, with all the level below it, notwithstanding the great attention and expence bestowed in planking and piling by the commissioners of sewers, will in a few years share the fate of the Roman town above mentioned. The remaining walls of Reculver castle skirt a hill of pit-sand, which is higher in every part than the ground without the walls. The earth has fallen, perhaps has been washed away from the base of the hill, and the foundation of that wall is thereby exposed to view in many places, which corresponds exactly with that of Richborough, being laid on small smooth pebbles in the natural soil. In Leland's time, between 1530 and 1537, the village of Reculver stood "withyn a quarter of a myle, or a little more, of the se fyde;" and Leland's miles were none of the shortest.

The castle, when entire, occupied above eight acres. The church stands on the highest part of the cliff, within a little of the sea, and at a distance is a striking object from the two spires at its west end. The cliff is continually crumbling away, particularly in the winter time, and falling on the beach, where the children of the neighbourhood pick up several Roman coins. The crumbling away of the cliff, on which the church stands, is become very alarming; but some ingenious methods have been lately proposed by sir Thomas Page, to prevent the farther encroachment of the waves.

The beautiful spires of Reculver have furnished Mr. Keate with an ingenious legendary tale in his *Sketches from Nature*, and they are also introduced in two poems included in this publication; the one by Mrs. Duncombe, the other by Mr. Jackson of Canterbury.

The remaining part of this number contains the history of Herne; Ford-House, an ancient seat belonging to the see of Canterbury; and Daundelion, a fashionable place of resort in the parish of St. John the Baptist, in Thanet, a seat once belonging to a family of that name. Some original records are annexed.

This work is adorned with several elegant copper-plates, delineated by Mrs. Duncombe, Mrs. Highmore, and others.

No. XIX. consists of additions to the memoirs of sir John Hawkwood, extracted from Villani, and from *Ritratti & Elogii*



Rhoggi di Capitani illustri, published at Rome in 1635; with some corrections of a preceding account of this celebrated warrior, communicated to the editor by Mr. D. Dalrymple.

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*A Narrative of the Conduct of the Tea-dealers, during the last Sale of Teas at the India House. 8vo. 1s. Cadell.*

THE purport of this narrative is to vindicate the conduct of the tea-dealers, and to throw upon the directors of the East-India company the odium resulting from the general clamour, relative to the price and quality of teas. One of the principal charges against the directors is, that they did not communicate to the tea-dealers the information which the latter desired, with regard to three points, at the commencement of the December sale. The points alluded to are as follow :

‘ 1st. The tea-dealers wish to receive all the information which the court of Directors can with propriety give, relative to the quantity and quality of those teas which they have lately purchased in the different parts of Europe.

‘ 2d. The tea-dealers hope to receive the most explicit information, relative to any teas which may be exposed to sale before the next quarterly or March sale.

‘ 3d. The dealers in tea expect that the directors will engage not to make, at any time whatever, any alteration in the putting-up prices, without giving to the dealers in tea notice of such intended alteration, at the commencement of that quarterly sale, which shall be prior to the sale at which the alteration is actually to take place.’

Whether these several requests were such as merited an explicit compliance, there is some room to question. The conduct of the directors was governed by this opinion, and they returned the following answers :

‘ In the present state of that business the court cannot give them any information.

‘ 1st. But whenever the company import tea from the continent, declarations thereof shall be made public in the same manner as is done when teas arrive from China.

‘ 2d. That no tea will be sold previous to that time, excepting the tea declared for present sale, and the private trade.

‘ 3d. The company must be guided as to prices at which the teas are to be put up at all future sales, by the act of parliament passed last Session, called the Tea Act.’

The subsequent part of the pamphlet consists chiefly of observations on this transaction, too tedious and uninteresting to be submitted to the attention of our readers. But in one circumstance, which is also mentioned, the conduct of the directors may seem liable to censure, unless indeed they can vindicate themselves, by establishing it as a fact, that the tea-dealers had formed a combination, either for diminishing the price of tea, at the public sales, below what it could be reasonably afforded by the East India company; or for extorting from the public a higher price than they ought. The circumstance at which we have hinted, is the interference of a clerk belonging to the East India house, in offering as a purchaser at the public sale. We are, however, of opinion, that, unless the quantity purchased by the clerk was so great as to afford a presumption of his acting under the influence of the directors, which we do not find to have been the case, the affair was not worth mentioning.

The tea-dealers appear not a little solicitous to convince the public of the integrity of their conduct; it remains, therefore, that the directors should also vindicate their own. As we have hitherto heard only the allegations on one side, it is premature to form any satisfactory opinion upon the subject. Thus much, however, we may say with impartiality, that, if no bad teas be exposed to public sale, the tea-dealers alone will be answerable for retailing adulterated or vitiated commodities; and, if no undue artifices be practised by the East India company, to support the price of teas, any imposition in this article must also be imputed to the tea-dealers. Whether the public will derive any essential advantage from the efforts of Mr. Preston, we have not yet had time to experience; but it is no unpromising circumstance, with regard to the scheme supported by that gentleman, that, from the conclusion of this pamphlet, the tea-dealers, if we are not mistaken, seem to *feel sore* upon the subject.

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*Sermons, on various Subjects. In Two Volumes. By the Rev. Henry Downes. 2 Vols. 8vo. 10s. in Boards. Robinson.*

THE author of these discourses appears to have been a learned and judicious divine, free from bigotry and enthusiasm. His congregation consisted of plain, country people, and his instructions were adapted to their taste and capacities. He has therefore avoided all speculative and controversial disquisitions, except, perhaps, where he endeavoured to suggest some useful cautions against the absurd notions of the methodists. His style is perspicuous, and, in general, plain and unaffected. In some passages we meet with slight inaccuracies, and

and colloquial phrases; but these are such as will scarcely be observed by any but critical judges of composition.

Our readers will form a proper notion of his manner of writing and reasoning, from the following extract.

‘ That Jesus should melt into tears for his dead friend at the time when he was immediately about to bring him to life again, is such an absurdity in the opinion of those who improperly call themselves free-thinkers, as destroys the credit of the whole story. But it is the misfortune of sceptics, in general, to look no further than the face of things; to judge according to their first appearance. Of such there are small hopes. To others who are not quite so superficial, but are willing to search a little deeper into the matter, it may be proper and possible to give some satisfaction, at least if their doubts are sincere and conscientious.

‘ Now the objection before-mentioned, where it is real, and comes from the heart, proceeds from not attending duly to human nature, but confounding reason and constitution together; or giving the former such a power and authority over the latter, as she hath no right to, neither doth claim. The office of reason is not to root out, but to regulate the passions, and affections—not to destroy their being, but to restrain their excess; and to direct and govern them, both as to the object and the degree. Sorrow and sympathy are as natural to the human mind as cold and hunger to the body; and to prevent them, belongs neither to the province nor power of reason. In this respect the mind is merely passive, and no other than what wax is to the impression stamp upon it. This internal sense is a thing quite distinct from reason, and hath no connection with it; depends not upon arguments or choice, but is derived from nature, and acts, and is acted upon by necessity. We see it in many instances; we observe men surprisingly affected by the sight of a picture, or the combination of sounds, before they have examined, or even without being able to examine them by the rules of painting or music, or without the least skill in the laws of symmetry and harmony. Just so it is with spectacles of distress. We are stricken at the first view. We do not ask reason whether, or no, we shall be moved, but readily obey the great and alarming summons. In theatrical performances, does not the thrilling tear burst from the eyes of an audience upon imaginary scenes of horror and distress, though at the same time they are well aware that such scenes are merely fictitious, the effect of art and fancy, and often void of truth, or even probability itself? Do they consult their reason, and inquire into the grounds of their sorrow? or rather do they not weep, as it were, against reason? Nature pleads and the tears flow.

‘ The question should be, therefore, whether Jesus's weeping over Lazarus was natural; whether he did more than would be

expected from any other person, of a kind and compassionate temper, in the like circumstances? And if (as we have just now observed) nature claims it as a debt to imaginary scenes, how much rather to real sufferings? For such were those which now moved our Saviour's concern, and bade the silent tear be witness of it.

'It is true he was sensible that those sufferings would be short; that he had the cure along with him; that he was come on purpose to apply it; that the dead man should be immediately raised, and all their sorrows subside—but what then? Was not the object which he then beheld, were not the lamentations which he then heard, affecting? If so that was enough.

'When Pharaoh's daughter opened the ark of bulrushes, and saw the child Moses, who had been therein exposed to the rude mercy of the winds and waves, we read, *the babe wept*. It is not said, but it would be an injustice to her character not to suppose, that she wept also, provoked by so piteous a sight. And though she knew that it was in her power to save and protect the poor, helpless, devoted infant; yea though she resolved to take him under her royal protection, and to adopt him for her son, yet it is not likely that such her humane resolution at once stopped the flow of her tears, or restrained her tenderness, but so long at least as the same moving object continued in her sight, the same emotions of pity worked in her breast, notwithstanding the happy change designed for him. In like manner our Saviour beheld things as they then appeared, viewed them in their present situation—Lazarus entombed beneath his feet—a weeping crowd before his eyes—a scene surely very proper to move the human heart, and call forth the sympathetic tear. And therefore, since our blessed Lord in all things became like unto us, sin only excepted, can we wonder to find him warmed with those kind and generous affections which are justly esteemed the most amiable part of our nature? Or must we not have wondered if he had not been susceptible of those impressions which the best of men feel the most sensibly; and which are one true criterion of their excellency?'

The following are the principal subjects, which the author has explained and illustrated in these two volumes. The weeping of Jesus at the Tomb of Lazarus, the Righteousness which exalteth a nation, the real and pretended Christians Pride, Envy, Slander, the whole Duty of Man, true Zeal, the Sacrament, Jephtha's Vow, Church Music, worldly and religious Pursuits, the Punishment of Haman, Contentment, the proper Use of temporal Blessings, Faith without Works, Christ's Victory over the World, a good Name, Repentance, and the Care of the Soul.

In the sermon on Jephtha's Vow, Mr. Downes translates the Hebrew particle *q*, Jud. xi. 31, *or*; and supposes that Jephtha's daughter was not sacrificed. This opinion is now

generally adopted; but the best interpretation is proposed by a late writer \*, who translates the latter part of the verse in this manner: 'And I will offer to him a burnt offering;' which entirely acquits the father from any obligation to perform the cruel and unwarrantable act of sacrificing his daughter.

## MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

## N O V E L S.

*Modern Times, or the Adventures of Gabriel Outcast; supposed to be written by himself. In Imitation of Gil Blas. 3 Vol. 12mo. 9s. Walter.*

THERE is an agreeable pleasantry in *Gil Blas*, which renders his adventures in the palace of Philip, or the tower of Segovia, equally interesting. We seldom approve of his conduct, yet his success pleases, and his misfortunes distress us. To each state also his manners and his conversation are so nicely adapted, that he seems fitted only for it; and the changes in his situation are produced by causes apparently so natural, that the mind with ease passes from the robbers' cavern to all the elegancies of the hotel garni. On these accounts, *Le Sage's* hero pleases readers of every description, and each joins in the applause, frequently without a moment's enquiry into its foundation. We think that our author has acted injudiciously, in obtruding this excellent work on our notice; and, by that means, suggesting a comparison very unfavourable to his own. Several of the situations are indeed servilely copied from *Gil Blas*. Our hero is connected with robbers of a less atrocious kind! and, while he fails in villainy, exceeds his prototype in dignity, for Gabriel is actually prime minister: he is also a servant, a stage-player, and, to finish the climax, a doctor, and a reviewer; besides many subordinate characters, and some more exalted ones, already mentioned.

As our experience is by no means equally extensive, we cannot judge of all his representations: but his portraits are often distorted likenesses; and, though we perceive some original traits, the colouring frequently disguises the resemblance. He seems to have observed, and copied the picture in the worst light; and to have described the characters of professions from the lowest of its professors. Of the conduct of Reviewers, and of their usual proceedings, he is entirely

\* See Crit. Rev. vol. xiii. p. 63.

ignorant; indeed it often amuses, rather than displeases us, to see such different descriptions of our characters and connexions, while all are distant from the truth:—but ‘Let the galled jade wince, our withers are unwrung.’

In the change of situations, probability is not very often preserved; and some of the adventures border too much on the marvellous. But, before we can strike the balance, we must survey the opposite side. Many of the characters introduced into these volumes are drawn with spirit, and preserved with consistency; though, when we catch a living likeness, we think the picture, as usual, is overcharged. The different situations are described with pleasantry, and we are led through the train of adventures without languor or listlessness. The author is generally in good humour himself, except where he speaks of booksellers or reviewers; and his strokes of ridicule are sometimes so poignant, and generally so transitory, that we forget our own lashes, to contemplate the punishment of our neighbours, who seldom fare better. The anecdotes, as our author allows, are sometimes copied: indeed a little examination might detect his plagiarisms more frequently; but, as he observes, a well-timed story may often be introduced into company with propriety, though some of them have already heard it.—This is, in our opinion, an impartial review of the merits and faults of these volumes, which the Literary Society have thought worthy their protection, and dignified with the advantages of the *Lithographic Press*. But, whatever advantages may result from this mode of printing, we think, even from the specimen before us, they are compensated at least by equal inconveniences. As to the great object of the society, viz. to publish works of merit, which booksellers will not undertake, we shall make few observations, till we find that *important* publications are refused by the latter, and in danger of oblivion, unless supported by the former.

*The Myrtle; or, the Effects of Love. A Novel. In a Series of Letters, by a Lady. 3 Vols. 12mo. 9s. Lane.*

We peruse so many trifling performances of this kind, that we want a variety of language to characterise them; but, in future, when we meet with any thing unusually trifling, we may say, that it is as trite as insignificant, and as uninteresting as the Myrtle.

*The Casket; or, Double Discovery. A Novel. In Two Volumes. 12mo. 6s. Lowndes.*

We meet with the hackneyed adventures, and the usual catastrophes, of novels in these volumes, without an uncommon incident, a peculiar character, or new language. The work is one of those equivocal beings, without the spirit and dignity of

of man; yet not so far debased by trifling effeminacy, as to belong to the other sex. It is a milk and water production; and we shall leave it to the babes and sucklings, for whose weak organs it is peculiarly adapted. — “Peace to its manes.”

*The Young Widow; or, the History of Mrs. Ledwich. Written by herself. In a Series of Letters to James Lewis, Esq. 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. Noble.*

The editor wishes for the character of a moralist, at least indirectly, for he endeavours to show, that ‘beauty and fortune are not able to procure happiness, when they are not accompanied by virtue.’ In pursuit of this plan, he has given vice no seductive colouring, nor decorated her with allurements, which will continue long after the moral is forgotten. But, on the other hand, the tale is trite, uninteresting, and insipid: the young widow’s virtues and frailties, her pleasures and remorse, are buried in a country retirement: we wish not to disturb her repose, nor to rouse her from the oblivion in which she will soon be involved.

### P O E T R Y.

*Poems. By the Rev. William Lipscomb, A. M. 4to. 3s. 6d. Walter.*

In this publication we have the following original poems: 1. Ode to Midnight. 2. Beneficial Effects of Inoculation. 3. Elegy on the Death of Lord Lyttelton. 4. The Powers of Sympathy. 5. Ode to the Genius of Bath-Baston. 6. Verses on Lord North’s public Reception at Oxford. 7. To a Sister, on her Birth-Day. 8. To a Young Lady. These compositions seldom rise beyond mediocrity, and to do justice to the author, less frequently sink beneath it: though we are rather surprised how such a line as

‘Th’ Almighty’s sovereign Deity,’

crept into a performance in general correct, and free from glaring improprieties. We wish the sixth poem had been omitted, when we are told that the honourable lord there introduced under the name of ‘Britain’s Genius,’

— ‘chac’d to climes remote the blood-stain’d foe,’ —  
that he was

‘Born both to grace his country and defend

— Britannia’s guardian and the Muse’s friend.’ —

Do not such encomiums too forcibly recall Pope’s well-known line?

‘Praise undeserv’d is censure in disguise.’

All that we can allege in the author’s favour is, that as the poem was written in 1773, the American war was not at that time commenced, nor Mr. Warton probably known to the noble lord he has so injudiciously celebrated. The performance which pleases us most is that on inoculation, and which we are told, ‘obtained one of the chancellor’s prizes at the university

of Oxford, in the year 1772.' It opens with the distress of Arabia, on account of the ravages of the small-pox, which is personified in the following bold and striking manner.

' His motley front uprear'd the deadly pest,  
And shook, with savage pride, his purpled crest;  
The scorching sands of Afric gave him birth  
Thence sprang the fiend and scourg'd the afflicted earth;  
Fiend fierce as this ne'er saw astonish'd time  
Creep from old Nilus' monster-teeming slime;  
Each vale now felt the deadly tyrant's force,  
Nor tears nor vows could stop his destin'd course:  
In vain was sung the mighty prophet's name  
To Mecca's hallow'd walls the monster came;  
E'en in the sacred temple's inmost cell  
Check'd in mid prayer the pious pilgrim fell,  
Nor could Medina's fabled tomb withstand  
The baleful vengeance of his death-fraught hand.  
Those balmy gales that whilom could dispense  
A thousand odours to the ravish'd sense,  
With fragrant coplness pleasing now no more  
Spread thro' the tainted sky their deadly store;  
With anxious fear the fainting mother press'd  
The smiling infant to her venom'd breast;  
The smiling babe unconscious of his fate  
Imbib'd with greedy joy the baneful treat;  
Oft as the swain beneath the citron shade  
Pour'd his soft passion to the listening maid,  
Infection's poison hung on every breath,  
And each persuasive sigh was charg'd with death.'

The concluding lines are exceedingly elegant and pathetic. We have likewise a translation of twenty-three Italian Sonnets, from the collection of P. Nicandro Jasseus and others; all of which, either in the original or a prose version, have been already published. Though the author does not always give an adequate idea of their sweetness and simplicity, he never disgusts, and generally pleases. The translation of thirteen odes of Horace, which conclude this collection, are neither entitled to praise nor censure.

*Poems on various Subjects, Moral, Sentimental, Satyrical, and entertaining.. By T. Harpley and W. Sanicroft. 8vo. 3s. Dilly.*

We have compared these friendly rivals, who entwine their laurel crowns into one festoon; but are really unable to ascertain the victory. 'Each is worthy of a heifer.' May this social pair pass down the stream of fame, and collect the gale, free from the rocks and quicksands of criticism, whose slightest touch would destroy their feeble bark; for, while neither can excel, neither can sink lower than the other.

' Arcades ambo  
Et santare pares & respondere parati.'



*The Conditional Rencontre anticipated. A poetical Dialogue.* 4to. 2s. Stockdale.

Whether the author, as he has \*post-dated the time in which his poem was published, has not likewise, from an anticipation of its success, prepared a second edition, before the first was disposed of, seems to us not a little suspicious. If it really has had so rapid a sale, we can only wonder, and exclaim, in the words he has chosen for his motto,

‘ There’s no accounting for taste !’

*Aerophorion. A Poem.* 4to. 1s. Doddsley.

This poem, though not remarkable for novelty of thought, or depth of reasoning, is written with spirit and elegance. It treats with no small share of severity those cynics who sneer at our aerial adventurers,

‘ And mock the labours they despair to reach.’

It is no less liberal in its encomiums on them. The following analogical reason has been often urged in favour of those gentlemen’s arduous attempts; and though, like other apologies, fallacious, yet, from the poetical garb in which it is arrayed, will give a favourable idea of the author’s abilities:

‘ Tempted by cloudless skies, yet half afraid,  
When first the novice mariner essay’d  
On the frail raft the border to forsake,  
To try the bosom of the unruffled lake,  
Grasping with trembling hand the ill-form’d oar,  
And scarcely venturing from the lessening shore,  
While shouting crowds applauding rent the skies,  
And weeping matrons blam’d the bold enterprise:  
Had some enthusiast bosom then foretold  
What wonderful scenes the invention should unfold,  
That ocean, sway’d by this improving art,  
Should join those coasts its billows seem’d to part;  
Bear the stupendous bark in safety o’er,  
And ev’ry produce waft to ev’ry shore;  
Had talk’d of climes by future navies cross’d,  
From scenes of Arctic to Antarctic frost,  
And regions open’d to the astonish’d sight  
Beyond imagination’s wildest flight;  
Such credit had he gain’d, as now would gain  
That sanguine votary from the sneering train,  
Whose hopes should promise from th’ improv’d balloon  
Planets explor’d, and empires of the moon.’

*The Immortality of Shakspeare. A Poem.* 4to. 1s. Highley.

The author, in a prefatory essay, observes, ‘ After the correct Pope, how homely appears my verse! after the divine Shakspeare, how poor my imagination! and, after the immortal ancients, how despicable appears the whole!’ We are

\* The poem was put into our hands, December, 1784.

much of the same opinion. 'Why then do I rush thus eager into the very bosom of death?' Aye, marry, there's the question! We hope, however, that by death he means only a poetical non-existence; for an unsuccessful writer may prove a very valuable member of society. 'Alas, continues he; this adds to the many proofs of man's weakness: almost convinced of the sterility of my muse, I cannot destroy the hope of her bearing a beauteous progeny.' We cannot indeed consider the present delivery as an abortion; but, as he has formed a connection with this lady at an early age, being but 'a youth of eighteen,' 'tis possible, if he continues the intercourse, she may hereafter produce him a living offspring. We wish we could speak with justice more favourably of this young author, who seems tremblingly alive in regard to literary fame. As the account of his situation in life may plead something for poetical defects, we shall lay it before the reader.

'Enchained by the fetters of commerce, how can the free-born genius take its unbounded flight? The present production comes from such an one, whose time permits not of its correction; whose verses are made by stealth; and who is surrounded, not with folio commentaries, but with folio ledgers; not with the volumes of history, but with journals; not with common-place books, but with waste-books. That ship must indeed be of the first rate, which, with unfavourable winds, weathers the storm, and triumphantly enters the harbour!'

His library at present is certainly ill calculated for assisting the flights of fancy; it may, however, prove of more real utility, and afford solid pudding, while the more favoured votaries of the Muses starve on empty praise.

*The Vanity of all human Knowledge. A Poem. By the late Rev. John Stuckey. Corrected, enlarged, and arranged by M. Dawes, Esq. With a philosophical Dedication to Dr. Priestley, and an Account of the Life and Death of the Author. 4to. 2s. 6d. Evans.*

This pamphlet for a time escaped us; and, if it had continued unknown, we should have lost neither pleasure nor advantage. The philosophical dedication is an intended compliment to Dr. Priestley, on the subject of Necessity; but we know not how the following passage can be considered in this light: 'It is delightful (viz. the art of philosophising) and instructing to those, whose road to truth is *unchoaked up* by fears, prejudices, and *unconquerable habits of thinking*.' If this has any meaning, it is, that philosophy would be pleasant, if it could be attained without the trouble of thinking. We really suspect, from Mr. Dawes's different publications, that he has aimed at this extraordinary art.

The life of Mr. Stuckey, a clergyman in Bristol, and the son of a gentleman in Devonshire, is unvaried by incidents and adventures. Mr. Dawes seems to have known little of him, but that he was educated for a clergyman, and, from his 'unconquerable habits of thinking,' he became a methodist. His cha-

character, though ostentatiously displayed, is equally void of features, either remarkable or expressive. The poem is such as may be expected from one who, from the tenets of his sect, despises worldly knowledge. A large share, if we can trust an original manuscript, is written by Mr. Dawes; but neither the original, nor the additions, offer us any temptation to transcribe a single line. In some of the passages there is a fancy, which we should neither expect from a philosopher nor a methodist; the versification is smooth, and the rhymes tolerably correct. The great defects are force, spirit, and meaning.

*A Pastoral, in four Parts: Absence, Hope, Jealousy, and Despair.*  
4to. 1s. Fores.

Never was the manner of any poet more wretchedly imitated than that of Shenstone in this production. In the title page, the author is said to be a half-pay officer. It is possible, that in a military capacity he may deserve esteem; but let him never expect to gather laurels, or even the humble ivy, within the bounds of Parnassus; for he is none of those illustrious geniuses, "whom both Minervas crown."

P O L I T I C A L.

*Political Letters written in March and April 1784. By a late Member of Parliament.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Bladon.

The history of the last parliament, subsequent to the passing of the celebrated East India bill by the house of commons, is sufficiently well known to the public, and will ever deserve to be regarded as one of the most remarkable periods in the annals of this country. The present pamphlet is employed in reconsidering the political topics which were so warmly agitated during that time. The author writes with good sense, dispassionate reasoning, and historical knowledge; but the subject has been already too much exhausted to afford many interesting observations. The remarks most worthy of attention, are those which he makes relative to *secret influence*. He evinces, from the authority of sir Edward Coke and sir Matthew Blakiston, that it is the inherent privilege of a peer to offer advice, when he judges proper, to his sovereign; and he also shows from the history of Edward the Second, and Richard the Second, that the monopolising of the royal ear by ministers, was considered in these times as a grievance so unconstitutional and dangerous to the state, that it proved the source of great public commotion in both the above mentioned reigns. Some pertinent observations are also made on the pernicious consequences which might result, should the house of lords be governed by an implicit obsequiousness to the resolutions of the house of commons.

*A Sequel to Sir William Jones's Pamphlet on the Principles of Government.* 8vo. 6d. Cadell.

This dialogue, though denominated a Sequel to Sir William Jones's Pamphlet, is a direct refutation of that production.

The principal speaker, (but whether likewise the author, we knew not,) is the dean of Gloucester, who attacks the dean of St. Asaph with great vehemence, and comes off victorious in the dispute.

*Lord N—th condemned, and Lord S—ne vindicated.* 8vo. 1s. Cooper.

During the long and struggling period of lord North's administration, the author adduces various instances of misconduct, as well as misfortune. With regard to lord Shelburne, however, he thinks that the only plausible charge is what relates to the limits of the British and American territories; respecting which he observes, that his lordship may have been deceived by erroneous information. . . .

*A Letter to the Jurors of Great-Britain: occasioned by an Opinion of the Court of King's Bench, read by Lord Chief Justice Mansfield, in the Case of the King and Woodfall; and said to have been left by his Lordship with the Clerk of Parliament.* By George Rous, Esq. 8vo. 2s. Stockdale.

The author of this Letter has 'endeavoured to shew, from the forms of proceeding, from the design and spirit of the institution, and from the constant practice of our ancestors, that jurors ought of right and duty to determine the whole complicated charge in the prosecution of a libel.' In regard to the two first of those heads, Mr. Rous argues with much plausibility; but in support of the third, the only instance he adduces is that of the seven bishops; concerning which, when we consider the disposition of the people at the time, perhaps the conduct of the judges may appear to have been not uninfluenced by political motives, in leaving to the jury the right of determining with respect to the libel. At any rate, one instance, and that in a case which seems too equivocal for any positive inference, cannot be deemed a sufficient proof of the 'constant practice' of our ancestors.

## M E D I C A L.

*A Method of preventing or diminishing Pain in several Operations of Surgery.* By James Moore. 8vo. 2s. Cadell.

Notwithstanding Mr. Moore's ingenious apology, we fear that physicians are sometimes unfeeling, and surgeons cruel. This state of mind is unavoidable, in consequence of the frequent sight of misery and pain; for the mind becomes callous from successive impressions, as well as the body. We are by no means certain that great sensibility would be advantageous to persons of either of those professions: it would certainly increase their own distress, and perhaps would not be very useful to their patients, as it would deprive them of the power of exerting a dangerous, but necessary, mode of relief. The means of diminishing pain, therefore, recommended by our author, will not probably be very generally received by practical surgeons; yet it is ingenious.

nious, and seems likely to be effectual. The instrument is called a compressor, and is intended to be placed either on the arm or thigh, for it is applicable only to the extremities. The effect is to press on the nerve, and consequently to diminish the sensibility of the limb. Mr. Mobre candidly owns, that his experience, with this instrument, is not sufficient to induce him to recommend it with confidence: the present pamphlet is published chiefly to introduce it to practice, and to procure evidence of its power, more unexceptionable than that of an inventor. This method is liberal and judicious; and the author discovers not only modesty and candour, in his little work, but a very competent share of knowledge respecting the anatomy of the parts, which are the subject of his trials.

*Symptomatology.* By John Berkenhout, M. D. 8vo. 3s. in Boards. Baldwin.

The different symptoms are arranged in this volume, in an alphabetical order, and their several tendencies explained. The authorities are generally respectable: we meet with the names of Hippocrates, Galen, and Cœlius Aurelianus, among the ancients; with Morgagni, Fothergill, &c. among the moderns. The author claims those which appear without any other mark, and we suppose ratifies the others with his approbation. So far as we can perceive, the collection is accurate and judicious: we must expect to find some doubtful and some erroneous symptoms, since the authorities are so various; but there are very few of this kind. The definitions of diseases are those of Dr. Cullen, in his Synopsis.

The work is dedicated to the apothecaries, whom Dr. Berkenhout styles the physicians de facto, while the title de jure belongs to a different class. The world would, he thinks, be benefited by trusting to old women only; since more injury is done by the pretenders to the science, than by the judicious practitioners. In acute diseases, the whole time, in which any thing of consequence can be done, is consumed in the triflings, perhaps in the mistaken efforts of the apothecary. This indeed is generally true, and requires the severest reprehension. The apothecary should be more or less skilful than he is generally found to be: he should be more so, for the important period in which he is allowed to direct; or less, if he is only to act in his original destination, as a compounder.

‘If there be no misrepresentation in what I have written, it appears that the life of every individual in England is in the hands of some apothecary. You see, sir, the important, the awful trust reposed in you by the whole nation, and you cannot avoid perceiving your high consequence in the community. Members of parliament and ministers of state are the guardians of the people’s property only.’

We have selected this specimen of the lively manner of our author, whom we always wait on with pleasure. We seldom distrust his judgment; but his vivacity and quickness sometimes will not wait for its cooler dictates.

*An Essay on the Medical Character, with a View to define it. By Robert Bath. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Laidler.*

The author has adapted his work to the dull, and to the asthmatic: for the former, he enforces his sentiments by tautology; for the latter, he has so plentifully interspersed his stops, that the shortest breath can reach from the one to the other. A short extract will more clearly exemplify his manner than the longest description.

‘Medical policy, in adopting a system of diet, so far, as it goes, to the exclusion of the *common and general* supports of life, is the most *desistive and contemptible*, as well, as nugatory, in itself. The general irritability, induced by disease, will certainly, be *increased*, and not *diminished*, by a hasty, or, injudicious abridgment, of the common necessities and comforts of life; and, hence, great regard, must be had, to the means of keeping up, and supporting the patient, so that nature’s intentions, may be soon, *got at*, or, *pointed out*, to us; and her powers must neither be *obstructed*, nor *interfered* with: in this case, the disease will more readily come to its crisis, and termination.’

As to his observations, they are good, bad, and indifferent; but much the greater number may be arranged in the two last classes. In some instances, the observations are extremely erroneous.

*Some Considerations on the different Ways of removing confined and infectious Air; and the Means adopted, with Remarks on the Contagion in Maidstone Gaol. By Thomas Day. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Wilkie.*

Mr. Day has collected what different authors have written on this subject, and related in perspicuous, but not always exact language, the methods employed to correct the noxious air in Maidstone gaol. He chiefly used showers of lime-water, which seemed very refreshing, and, with changes of cloaths, bedding, &c. soon rendered the gaol more healthy. We are sorry to observe, that our knowledge on this subject is not very accurate. Miasmata and contagion exist in the air; but we know not whether they are capable of a chemical combination with it, or are only mechanically diffused: we know not whether they occupy the lower, or higher parts of the room: whether they have a greater affinity to fixed, or to inflammable air. So far as we can ascertain, they seem only diffused in the air, sometimes combined with inflammable air, and generally in the loftier parts; though, if we can depend on M. Maret’s experiments, of which we have many doubts, contagion, in its specific gravity, more strongly resembles fixed air. In this uncertainty, we are greatly comforted, by finding, that we can easily disarm this formidable enemy by ventilation only. Free air either dilutes the poison, or powerfully corrects it. The fumes of vinegar with aromatics, have very little effect; while the shower of lime-water, at the same time that it assisted ventilation,

lation, cooled the air, and absorbed the fixed air floating in it: from these effects it seemed so refreshing. In short, constant supplies of fresh air are only necessary; they will supersede every fumigation, and the use of every corrective: without them, nothing will be completely effectual.

The active benevolence of the inhabitants of Maidstone, and the attention of Mr. Day ought, however, to be mentioned with the warmest commendations.

## D I V I N I T Y.

*Sermons translated from the original French of the late Rev. James Saurin. By Robert Robinson. Vol. V. 8vo. 5s. 3s. Dilly.*

Saurin's Sermons, in the original, are twelve octavo volumes, eleven of which are miscellaneous, and one contains a regular set of discourses for Lent. The four English volumes comprehend a selection of sermons from the whole, ranged in some sort of order; the first being intended to convey proper ideas of God, the second to establish revelation, and so on. The present volume is miscellaneous, and consists of fourteen sermons, on the fatal Consequences of a bad Education, General Mistakes, the Advantages of Piety, the Repentance of the unchaste Woman, the Vanity of attempting to oppose God, imaginary Schemes of Happiness, Disgust with Life, the Passions, transient Devotions, the different Methods of Preachers, the deep Things of God, the Sentence passed upon Judas by Jesus Christ, the Cause of the Destruction of impenitent Sinners, and the Grief of the Righteous for the Misconduct of the Wicked.

Though Saurin's views of religion are not always such as a rational defender of Christianity can approve, yet the vivacity of his sentiments, the importance of his observations, the weight of his arguments, and the energy and animation with which he treats his subjects, entitle him to a place among the most useful and distinguished preachers of his age.

The translator appears to have performed his part with fidelity and spirit.

*The Doctrine of a Providence, illustrated and applied in a Sermon, preached to a Congregation of Protestant Dissenters, at Nottingham, July 29, 1784; being the Day appointed for a General Thanksgiving, on the Conclusion of the late destructive War. By the Rev. George Walker, F. R. S. 8vo. 1s. Johnson.*

The topics, on which this writer insists, are, a due acknowledgement of God as the great ruler of the world, a submission to his will, the consolation which the wisdom and rectitude of his providence inspires, and a thankfulness for the mercies which, in the midst of his chastisements, he is still pleased to leave in our possession.

In treating of Providence, the author takes notice of several phenomena, which, he thinks, cannot be accounted for upon  
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natural or mechanical principles. This is a common, but, we presume, an erroneous notion. First, because there are many natural causes, which we cannot at present either see or explain; and, secondly, because we cannot possibly set any bounds to the energy of mechanical causes; since it must be universally allowed, that the mechanist is God.

*The Sum of Christianity, in Four Books; containing the Faith, the Temper, the Duty, and Happiness, of a true Christian, as held forth in the Scriptures. By William Dalglish. In Two Volumes. 8vo. 16s. in Boards. Dilly.*

In this work the author undertakes to delineate Christianity in all its essential parts, and these in their proper order and connection: that is, first, the religious truths which Christianity reveals for our instruction, and which every man, who would be a Christian, must know and believe: 2dly, the religious principles and temper of mind which it requires in all men, and produces in all who sincerely believe and embrace it: 3dly, the various duties towards God, our neighbour, and ourselves, which it enjoins to all who embrace it, and which every true Christian must be careful to perform: and, 4thly, the salvation and happiness which it promises to all who truly believe and obey it, and which every sincere Christian shall obtain.

These are the essential parts of the Christian religion, and this is the order in which this pious and respectable writer has carefully arranged and explained them. But, as the logicians say, 'quicquid recipitur, recipitur ad modum recipientis,' the system of Christianity, which is here presented to the reader's view, is that which has been usually called Calvinistic. The practical part is unexceptionable.

#### MISCELLANEOUS.

*Esprit de Meilleurs Ecrivains Francois. 12mo. 3s. Dilly.*

Our present collector is dissatisfied with the labours of his predecessors, and presents us with a different compilation. The great end is to collect from such authors as have written detached pieces, that the selected part may be one entire whole; and afford means to form the judgment, while the pupil acquires the language. Some moral reflections and maxims are consequently borrowed from Rochefoucault: Saint Real furnishes reflections on the use of history, sciences, &c. Saint Evremond and Pascal their several 'thoughts;' the penetrating Bouhours, and the exact Rabin, their critical reflections. From Bruyere, the collector has borrowed general remarks on life and manners, without any particular characters; from Boileau, the best satires and epistles; and from Corneille, the Cid. The views of this compiler, though exact, are imperfect. While he attempts to form the judgment, he neglects the style of his pupil; though some of these authors are valuable for their energy, yet they are not proper models for a modern Frenchman. Perhaps the collector and ourselves are too fastidious, since the pupil can never be wholly confined to the compilation



of a school-book; and, if it assist in teaching him the words and the idiom, more need not be expected, for more will be useless. The preface is well written, but so much in the English style, that if it be not the composition of an Englishman, the author has neglected his own idiom to acquire ours.

*Symposia; or, Table Talk in the Month of September, 1784. Being a rhapsodical Hodge-podge, containing, among other Things, Balloon Intelligence for the Years 1785, 1786, and 1787. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Bew.*

This good-humoured author is 'rapt into future times.' He looks up to Merlin and Nostredamus as his great predecessors; while Mesmer and Deslon only follow the reveries of Paracelsus, or the fancies of sir Kenelm Digby. This 'rhapsody' is indeed neither 'offensive to the laws, religion, or politics of this kingdom:' if it contains not the 'smallest sprig' of science, it abounds with 'novel, innocent, mirth.' The introduction is unsuitable to the work itself; and, though we allow with the author, that it is of no consequence in what part of a book a good thing may be, yet it contains too much of the depravity of mankind, to suit with the harmless humour of the rest; and, in one or two places, it seems to lean towards personal satire. He examines mankind, and finds in the human heart a great deal of avarice, prodigality, and ostentation; consequently the prodigal, the ostentatious, the avaritious, the fraudulent, and deceitful, will turn balloons to their own use. 'Quorum hæc tam putida tendunt?' These are the foundations of his prophecy; on these hinges turn the events, which are supposed to happen; and the conjurer, as usual, only applies general rules to particular cases.

We have already given our opinion on this subject; but whether balloons are the popular amusement of the day, or a philosophical invention, capable of improvements, and probably of the greatest utility, our author's humour is agreeable, and his fancy copious. We shall extract an article of intelligence from each year, as we think that the successive ones are well adapted to a science supposed to admit of considerable additions.

'We are happy to assure our readers, that the air-carriages are found to be of such utility, that they are daily increasing in number throughout the kingdom: no less than fifty balloons were at their moorings in the various inns in Reading, in their way from Bath to London. It is computed that not less than 100,000 horses were formerly employed in conveying people from place to place on account of business, exclusive of those employed in the transportation of goods, and this number will appear exaggerated only to those who are unskilled in political arithmetic; the reduction of horses for this purpose cannot but produce a reduction in the price of grain.—A consummation devoutly to be wished.'

In the year 1786, the following advertisement appears:

'This

'This day is published a new Treatise on the Upper Regions of the Air, being the result of many observations thereon during a considerable time of residence in the Upper Regions of the Atmosphere, upwards of ten miles distant from the earth.—Together with some few remarks on the means of preserving a due respiration in a pure æther: calculated principally for the use of the gentlemen now engaged to make a journey to the moon. By T. B. member of the Lunatic Society in Moorfields.'

But in the year 1787, the invention seems to be almost completed; and our author, if he indeed believes his own oracles, might have exclaimed with Pope,

'Think what an equipage thou hast in air,  
And view, with scorn, two pages and a chair.'

'Advertisement. Mr. Stargazer, of Half-moon-street, being allowed by all those he has the honour to be acquainted with, to be the completest builder of castles in the air of any architect in this kingdom, begs leave to acquaint the nobility and gentry, that, should he meet with proper encouragement, he could fix places of refreshment in the middle regions of the air, at several stages in the course to Bath, whereby they might, on travelling thither, be accommodated with any thing they may want on the voyage, without the trouble of descending to the earth—which cannot but be agreeable during the hot summer months.'

We shall take our leave of this merry author, by returning now, as we had not an earlier opportunity, his compliment of a 'merry Christmas and a happy new year.'

*Birth-day Conversation anticipated; or, a Peep into the Drawing-Room, on the 18th of January.* 4to. 1s. 6d. Smith.

This author has contrived to bring together a number of eminent personages of both sexes; but their conversation is far from doing honour to the British court, either in point of ingenuity or delicacy. Should he ever be admitted to more than an imaginary peep into the drawing-room, he soon would become sensible that he has entirely misrepresented the dialogue of that elegant assembly. In the mean time, as we wish him not to incur any disappointment, we hope he has not also anticipated much profit from this production. 'Tis well if it can afford a bottle of honest port to celebrate her majesty's birthday.

*An Address to the Officers of the British Army; containing a Sketch of the Case of Capt. Kenith Mackenzie, who was lately tried by a special Commission at Justice-Hall in the Old-Bailey, for the Murder of Kenith Mackenzie, at Fort Morea, on the Coast of Africa.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Kearsley.

While the case of captain Mackenzie excites universal commiseration, it also exposes a very important defect in the criminal jurisdiction of this country, so famed for the equity of its decisions, both in respect of what concerns the property and the life of the subject. The mode of trial by a jury is the invaluable pri-

privilege of Britons; but this privilege, however highly and justly prized, would become of little avail to the public, should either the integrity or the understanding of juries ever be found defective. Of the integrity of the jury which tried captain Mackenzie, we do not imagine that the smallest degree of doubt can be entertained; but, without any impeachment of their natural understanding, their competency for judging in such a case as the present may reasonably be called in question. There is a palpable impropriety in trying by a *civil* jury the conduct of a military officer for an act committed in the discharge of his professional department. In a trial of such a kind, the prisoner is, in fact, not judged by his peers, and is therefore denied the protection of that principle which is regarded as inseparable from liberty.

The author of the present address has placed this circumstance in a very clear light; and his reasoning is, in our opinion, so forcible, that it must meet with general acquiescence. If we are not misinformed by the news-papers, an enquiry, at the command of his majesty, has lately been made into captain Mackenzie's conduct by military officers. The result of the investigation has not yet transpired, but there is the strongest reason to expect, that by a tribunal so constituted, the offence will not be deemed capital. From all the circumstances of the case, it appears that the conduct of captain Mackenzie was dictated by necessity; and that, had he not exerted himself in the manner he did, not only his own life, but the possession of the fortress, would have fallen a sacrifice to that daring spirit of mutiny discovered by the deceased, and with which there was reason to fear the whole garrison was deeply contaminated. That captain Mackenzie will receive his majesty's pardon is not to be questioned; but we cannot help regretting, that any subject of the realm should be reduced to the situation of a capital convict, under circumstances which strongly plead for a deviation from the usual mode of trial in indictments of this kind.

*A genuine Detail of the several Engagements, Positions, and Movements of the Royal and American Armies, during the Years 1775 and 1776; with an accurate Account of the Blockade of Boston, and a Plan of the Works on Bunker's Hill, at the Time it was abandoned by his Majesty's Forces on the 17th of March, 1776. By William Carter. 4to. 2s. 6d. Kearsley.*

The information afforded by these letters may be true, but they seem not to relate the whole truth; and Mr. Carter's authority is in general too vague to convey any such idea of the military transactions, as might enable us to judge with regard to the conduct of the commanding officers on either side. The letters are short and distinct, but so inconsequential, for the reason we have mentioned, that we shall make no other observation to Mr. Carter than

—————jubes renovare, dolorem,'

## CORRESPONDENCE.

To the EDITOR of the CRITICAL REVIEW.

S I R,

AS you were so obliging as to announce my intention to revive the *Theological Repository*, I hope you will indulge me once more with leave to acquaint the friends of free inquiry, that the First Number of it was published on the 1st of December last, the Second will be ready for publication on the 1st of February next; and that it will continue to be published occasionally, as proper materials are received for it. Several very important articles are already in the course of discussion; and as it will be open to any *query*, or *difficulty*, relating to religion, and it is wished that the writers should conceal their names, it is hoped that many persons may derive great assistance from it in their enquiries. A particular account of the plan of the work may be seen in the *Introduction* to it. I am, Sir,

Birmingham,  
25th Jan. 1785.

Your obliged humble servant,

J. PRIESTLEY.

To the EDITOR of the CRITICAL REVIEW.

S I R,

AS you have admitted into your candid and useful publication, a censure on the (supposed) indelicacy of those who, during the life-time of the authoress of the 'Introduction to the reading of the Scriptures,' have printed a new edition of that little piece, with 'defalcations and alterations,' some of the persons involved in that censure, request the favour that you would make their apology to the lady and the public, by stating the real fact in your Review.

They solemnly declare that they neither knew from what hand that work had proceeded, nor whether the writer of it was alive. Much pleased however both with the plan and the execution of the work, and urged by the desire of farther extending its utility, they formed the resolution of publishing a new edition of it; in which design, as well as in a suspicion that the writer was dead, they were confirmed, by understanding that the work had been out of print for some years.

Under these circumstances, the production seeming to them to have become *publici juris*, they resolved that the new edition should be improved with such alterations and remarks as would accommodate it more generally to the different sects of Protestants. Having been actuated neither by motives of emolument nor fame, but merely by benevolence, and a regard to the interests of Christianity, they flatter themselves that their conduct will not incur the disapprobation of a lady who has herself displayed, in that cause, so much zeal as well as abilities.

This, Sir, is the true state of the case; and if you will be so good as to communicate it to the public, you will do a favour to all concerned, and particularly to the

EDITOR of the *Introduction*, &c.

## CRITICAL REVIEW.

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 For FEBRUARY, 1785.
 

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*Medical Communications. Vol. I. (Concluded, from p. 14.)*

**A**RTICLE XI. An Account of an uncommon Difficulty in Deglutition. By the late William Keir, M. D.—The difficulty of deglutition was attended with cough, and the fluid swallowed was rejected, seemingly before it reached the stomach. The cause was a singular one. A large ulcer in the upper and back part of the lobe of the lungs, had penetrated through the œsophagus, and partly through the substance of the trachœa; so that fluids passed into this cavity, which extended from the first to the fourth vertebra of the back, instead of the stomach. The subsequent cough is easily explained. The case is related with singular precision and perspicuity.

XII. A Case of Ascites, in which the Water was drawn off by tapping the Vagina. By Henry Watson, F. R. S.—The ascites was a compound one; for, besides the usual collection of water in the cavity of the peritoneum, one of the ovaria was much enlarged, and filled with a fluid. The chief curiosity in this history is the mode of operation, which the author thinks more convenient than the common one, on account of the part being more depending than that usually punctured. To the method, with the precautions which Mr. Watson recommends, we at present see no objection. We shall not abridge them, lest we might undesignedly misrepresent.

XIII. A Case of Peripneumony, attended with Emphysema. By George Hicks, M. D.—Instead of a Case of Peripneumony, attended with Emphysema, we think it may be more properly styled a Case of Emphysema, producing appearances of Peripneumony. The explanation of the fact seems to be, that by too great exertion, some of the smaller vesicles of the lungs had burst: the air, escaping into the cellular texture, pressed on the vessels, and impeded the circulation through this organ. The author observes, that ‘on the return of the emphysematous swelling about the breast and

neck, there was a constant *exacerbation* of the peripneumonic symptoms; and the disease yielded only to a continuance of the remedies for emphysema. The expectoration might be a symptom of the cure, as well as the cause of the relief.

XIV. A Case of Emphysema, brought on by severe Labour Pains. Communicated by Samuel Foart Simmons, M.D. F.R.S. — This Case was suggested by the former: the vesicle burst from the straining of labour in the upper part of the lungs; but the air did not diffuse itself through the lungs. It passed immediately through the cellular texture of the surface, and consequently did not produce any peripneumonic symptoms.

XV. An Account of a large Aneurism in the Abdominal Portion of the Aorta; with some introductory Reflections on the Artery in its diseased state. By Henry Watson, F.R.S. — The introductory remarks on this subject are not very important: the case itself is neither void of curiosity, nor of utility, so far as it is useful to be able to distinguish diseases, whose appearance is equivocal, and which we cannot cure. The pain, from too great exertion, was first confined to the patient's back, it then extended to his left side, and afterwards through the whole abdomen. The swelling first appeared under the false ribs of the left side; and at length a pulsation was to be felt in it. If we except the last, neither of these symptoms would be readily attributed to an aneurism. On dissection however, it really appeared to be an aneurism of the aorta, extending from about one inch and a quarter above the celiac artery, to some way below the mesenteric trunk. The diseased portion was in length about two inches and three quarters. It lay across the spine, and had forced the left kidney from its place, which formed the anterior part of the tumor.

XVI. An Account of the Effect of some Medicines employed in the Cure of Cutaneous Diseases. By James Carmichael Smyth, M.D. F.R.S. — Every one, frequently engaged in practice, has experienced the obstinacy of cutaneous diseases. They often seem to yield, but it is to return again with the most tiresome perseverance. The usual medicine is mercury, with which we sometimes cure the complaint at the expence of the constitution. Plummer's alterative pill is the most innocent form. Dr. Smyth's views have been properly turned to other medicines. In one case, the tincture of cantharides succeeded; but, except in this instance, he never completely cured the herpes with this medicine alone. We have been more fortunate; and when the patient could bear it in a large dose, have not often failed. It seems however more frequently useful in the moist, than the dry herpes. Dr.

Smyth

Smyth thinks it is not diuretic; and we believe that it is not usually so; yet blisters to the legs, in dropsies, often increase the flow of urine, though their operation, in this way, is equivocal. When given internally, it sometimes seems to have this effect; though it may be produced also by the stimulus on the debilitated organs.

The next medicine tried was the spirit of vitriol, introduced into the Prussian army in the cure of itch. Dr. Smyth found it very successful not only in itch, but in other cutaneous complaints: it produced no sensible discharges, after seeming at first to bring on a slight diarrhoea. The veratrum album may, in our author's opinion, be of service in nervous complaints. He found it useful in a periodical delirium, hysteria, and epilepsy. In cutaneous diseases, it has been chiefly used externally. Dr. Smyth gave the tincture internally, but without any flattering prospects: in one, of three cases here mentioned, it seemed to have cured; but every cure of this kind is doubtful, because generally, temporary. The large doses have the usual effects of hemlock; but this inconvenience is diminished, by giving the medicine in valerian tea. Shall we add a simpler cure than all those which we have mentioned? It is a milk diet, with occasional doses of neutral salts; and though this method is simple, it has succeeded after most of the others have failed.

XVII. A Case of Hydrophobia; by Mr. William Babington.—This Case is related with great accuracy; but, as usual, its termination was unfortunate. The destructive poison has not yet been encountered with its proper antidote.

XVIII. Case of an Ulceration of the Oesophagus, and Ossification of the Heart. By S. Foart Simmons, M. D. F. R. S.

—XIX. An Account of the Dissection of the Subject of the preceding Case; with Remarks. By Henry Watson, F. R. S.

—The ulcer in the oesophagus seemed to be cancerous, and occasioned a great difficulty in swallowing; the vomiting afterwards was owing probably to the irritation from the bone, formed in the substance of both ventricles, in that part of the heart which lies on the diaphragm, and is contiguous to the stomach, when distended. The chief effects of the ossification on the pulse were irregularity, and increased frequency. The remarks on this extraneous bone are judicious and correct.

XX. A Case of difficult Deglutition, occasioned by an Ulcer in the Oesophagus, with an Account of the Appearances on Dissection. By Maxwell Garthshore, M. D. F. R. S. and S. A.

—The ulcer was below the division of the trachea, and of course occasioned difficult deglutition; but the most remarkable additional symptom was a spitting. This may indeed

have arisen from the neighbouring ulcer keeping up a constant irritation; but, for occasional obstructions in the swallowing, two ounces of quicksilver were given at two different periods. We know that, in such circumstances, the mercury is frequently evacuated unchanged; but it has often produced salivation. These occasional obstructions the author seems to attribute to spasm, but they were more probably produced by small abscesses, as they terminated in a discharge of purulent matter.

XXI. A Case of Suppression of Urine, successfully treated, in which the Bladder was punctured through the Rectum. By Mr. Bentley.—The motive which induced the author to perform this operation, was the appearance of a considerable gangrene over all the parts. The opening closed in proper time; and the only bad effects were those which must necessarily have arisen from the separation of the mortification.

XXII. Pulmonary and other Complaints, apparently supported by Fever, of the intermittent or remittent kind, and cured by the Bark. By Samuel Chapman, M. D.—The chief reason for suspecting an intermittent or remittent fever, was the success of the bark. It is a question of great importance in practice, how far this remedy is really useful in phthisis, and has had its supporters and opponents; nor is it at this moment nearer to a decision than it ever was. The bark sometimes succeeds, and, with proper management, seldom does harm. The success, so far as we can perceive, is not connected with the nature of the prevailing epidemic, with the constitution of the patient, or the cause of the complaint; consequently the use of the remedy is yet merely conjectural. The disease itself greatly resembles a remittent; and our author, with many other practitioners, has found the usual remedy for remittents serviceable. It may be worth while to transcribe the sentiments of De Haen, as they now lie before us. *‘Mirum profecto fuit, intra quam breves dies post corticis usum, collapsæ vires resurgerint, febris decresceret, revivisceret appetitus, descœdato vultui color rediret, nitorque, & nocturnæ anxietates rarefcerent, blandi obreperent somni, sputisque pectus se commodè evacuet.’* We shall not farther enlarge on this subject, than to recommend to practitioners some attention to it, in order, if possible, to raise a superstructure on a more rational foundation.

XXIII. On the Efficacy of Opium in the Cure of the Venereal Disease. By Frederic Michaelis, M. D.—Notwithstanding the flattering appearances, from the first use of this remedy, we find that subsequent experience has not supported its credit in the full extent which was expected. We have our-



ourselves given pretty large doses of this remedy, and have seen all the effects which our author mentions, except salivation and a flow of urine. Our readers will however recollect the cure of dropsy, in the last volume of the Medical Observations. We shall extract the author's account of the consequences of large doses of opium, premising only, that from half a drachm to two scruples of the thebaic extract were given in a day; and that little or no sleep, except sometimes at first, were occasioned by it.

The effects this medicine produces upon the human body, have not yet been observed with sufficient accuracy. It is a general opinion, that it diminishes every secretion, perspiration excepted. This certainly is a mistake; and though in many cases it promotes a diaphoresis, yet in many others I have seen no such effect, but, in its stead, a plentiful secretion of urine, so that in several patients, the quantity of urine exceeded that of all the fluids they had drank. This effect of large doses of opium on the secretion of urine, though not quite so general a one as its promoting sweat, all my medical friends in New York who made trial of this new remedy, have observed so often, that, extraordinary as it may seem, the fact is beyond all doubt.

Another effect, which I, and several of my medical friends, observed now-and-then (though rarely) was, an increased secretion of saliva, sometimes amounting to an actual salivation; a symptom which I could not ascribe to any former remedy, as it occurred even in those who had never taken any mercury. But what will perhaps appear still more incredible is, that opium sometimes produces a most violent diarrhoea, particularly when great quantities of it are accumulated in the bowels. As to its effect upon the pulse, I found generally that it quickened it at first, but afterwards commonly made it very slow and full; yet, in a few cases, I have seen it continue quick and small, till the opium was discontinued. Sometimes indeed it produced head-ach, anxiety, pain in the breast, &c. which used immediately to vanish after bleeding; and for this reason, if the patient is of a full habit, we ought not to omit bleeding, before we give the opium. I also made it a constant rule, to cleanse the bowels previously, if there was any indication for doing so; it being well known that opium is improper when there are impurities in the first passages.

The bad effects of opium sometimes occurred; but were found either transitory, or to yield to the use of bark.

XXIV. Observations on the Causes, Symptoms, and Cure of the pulmonary Consumption, and some other Diseases of the Lungs; by the late W. Stark, M. D. with an Introduction and Remarks. By James Carmichael Smyth, M. D.

F. R. S.—In our fifty-fifth Volume, p. 16, we had occasion to review Dr. Reid's Treatise on the Phthisis Pulmonalis, and gave him credit for a valuable property, which we find really belonged to the late ingenious and accurate Dr. Stark. As we gave so full an account of that work, we shall be more concise in this place, and select only the distinguishing marks of the contents of the vomica: they seem to differ both from pus and mucus, and consequently the usual directions may mislead those who depend too exactly on chemical distinctions.

'As the spitting is, perhaps, the most certain criterion of vomica, it will be proper to enquire into its peculiar character, that it may be distinguished from pus and mucus; two substances which it greatly resembles. All of them when free from air bubbles sink in water. Pus is easily diffusible in it, by gentle agitation, but in a few hours falls to the bottom. Mucus cannot be easily diffused in water without strong agitation, but when diffused, forms with it a permanent rosy liquor. The spitting of consumptive persons is diffusible in water more easily than mucus, and like that, at first forms with it a rosy liquor; but which, in a few days, deposits a sediment in the same manner as pus; the liquor, however, still continuing rosy, and resembling mucus and water.'

The remarks of Dr. Smyth, with which this article concludes, display much learning and ingenuity.

XXV. An Account of an Hydrocephalus internus of a prodigious Size, in an Adult. By Frederick Michaelis, M. D.—This surprising creature lived, and probably lives, in New Jersey in America.—His head is of a monstrous size, measuring thirty-two inches in circumference, either from the chin to the nape of the neck, or round the forehead and temporal bones. His general health is good, and there is not the slightest symptom of compression on the origin of the nerves. Consequently there is no water in the ventricles, and the whole is at least external, with respect to the brain. The term *hydrocephalus internus* is therefore improper; but frequently used to distinguish this disease from one where the water is between the integuments and the bone.

XXVI. An Account of a Method of curing the Hydrophthalmia, by Means of a Seton. By Edward Ford, Surgeon.—This remedy is only to be attempted when vision is lost, in order to remove the inconveniencies which arise from the increased bulk of the eye. The threads are to be drawn from the external angle, about a quarter of an inch from the edge of the cornea, through the posterior chamber, and brought out at the same distance from the inner edge of the cornea.

XXVII.

XXVII. An Account of a Tumor, supposed to have been a diseased Kidney. By Mr. Henry Fearon, Surgeon.—The kidney, in this instance, became an irregular ossified mass, and produced symptoms very similar to those of a stone in the bladder. The other kidney was filled with purulent matter. The author proposes a question, whether a diseased kidney may not be removed, before the other is sympathetically affected? He will however recollect, that the distinction is difficult; and the degree of the disease not easily discovered. If it be slight, there will be no little difficulty in securing the emulgent vessels.

XXVIII. An Account of a Cancerous Affection of the Stomach. By John Sims, M.D.—The stomach was full of scirrhi, and some of these had ulcerated, so that the substance of the viscus was in one part destroyed; but this seemed to have happened only a little before his death. The symptoms are those which might be expected, excepting only an acute pain in his heel; a sympathy, which it is impossible to explain from any connection of nerves in their course.

XXIX. A Case of Cancer in the Stomach. By James Camichael Smyth, M.D.—The peculiar circumstance in this case, was a pulsation at the scrobiculus cordis, which was found to be owing to an adhesion between the stomach and the liver, and to the pulsation of the aorta under both. The seats of the stomach were destroyed; but, by means of the same adhesion, the sides of the liver supplied their place. An extreme acidity, not easily accounted for, attended the disease.

XXX. An Account of a painful Affection of the Antrum Maxillare, from which three Insects were discharged. By John Heysham, M.D.—This is a very curious case; but, though uncommon, not singular. The ova may have been secreted with the mucus, or originally lodged in that cavity; either supposition is involved with difficulties; but with fewer than the doctrine of self-production.

XXXI. An Account of an hairy Excrecence in the Fauces of a new-born Infant. By Edward Ford, Surgeon.—The substance was seemingly glandular, and it adhered by a small peduncle; so that it was easily removed.

*Curialia : or an Historical Account of some Branches of the Royal Household, &c. &c. Part I. By Samuel Pegge, Esq. 4to. 3s. 6d. Payne.*

*Curialia : or an Historical Account of some Branches of the Royal Household, &c. &c. Part II. By Samuel Pegge, Esq. 4to. 5s. Payne.*

IT is a subject of some curiosity, if of no great use, to observe the progress of customs and manners, and to trace the influence which different situations, or revolutions in the state of society may have on them. The changes of fashion, and the succession of a new folly for one more ancient, is of little importance; the variety, which alone deserves our attention, is to be deduced from a better source. It cannot have escaped the most superficial observer, that the pride of station, and the pageantry of office, are now endured rather than coveted; and, instead of the ostentation, sometimes necessary, but often the assumed importance of him who cannot acquire it by his own merits, every one wishes, at present, to slide into that easy equality, and happy freedom, which grandeur has often envied, and dignity in vain aspired to. Courts have, on this account, been stripped of a great part of their fascinating glare; and kings, sometimes doomed to feel what wretches feel, have aimed also at those pleasures which subjects alone used to enjoy. On this account, the names of offices remain without the duty; and the reader of histories and memoirs understands imperfectly, or mistakes the force of the description, because he is unacquainted with the rank or the dignity of the actors. There is also some amusement in the apparently barren disquisition on the offices of those who have attended kings and heroes in their more retired moments, and seen the man, separate from the monarch or the general; who have observed the anxieties of greatness, the terrors of grandeur, or the listlessness attendant on desires, almost checked by gratification. It is to some of these causes, and perhaps to each, that we have followed Mr. Pegge in his very accurate enquiry, with great pleasure: indeed, less perseverance than a reviewer ought to possess, will enable the reader to pursue an author, who selects his instances with propriety, and enlivens a dreary path with every occasional entertainment in his power.

The first Dissertation is on the Esquires of the King's Body. Esquires are well known to have been the attendants on knights; and, in the times of feudal magnificence, where wealth, dignity, and strength, consisted in the number of retainers, rather than the bulk of possessions: the esquires be-  
longing

longing to the household were forty; but of these, *four* only were appropriated to the *person* of the sovereign. We shall select the original account of their offices, from the Liber Niger, in the time of Edward IV.

"Esquires for the king's body four, noble of condition, whereof always *two* be attendant on the king's person, to array and unarray him, watch day and night, and to dress him in his cloaths: and they be callers to the lord chamberlain if any thing lack for his person or pleasure. Their business is in many secrets, some sitting in the king's chamber, some in the hall with persons of like service, which is called knights service. Taking every of them for his livery at night." [a certain quantity of bread, wine, and ale, and in winter certain allowances of candles, wood, &c.] "and wages in the counting-house, if he be present in court, daily seven-pence halfpenny, and cloathing with the household winter and summer; or else forty shillings, besides his other fee of the jewel house, or of the treasurer of England, and, besides his watching cloathing of chamber of the king's wardrobe. He hath abiding in the court but *two* servants [and] livery sufficient for his horses in the country by the herberger."

The great object of their services was the king's person; and it was so exactly limited, that while the esquire attended at his meals, and dressed him loosely in his bedroom, the principal parts of his dress were put on by the gentlemen of the privy chamber. In the night, the esquire's power was absolute; he slept in the presence, next the guard chamber, received every message, and had a right to enter the king's bed-chamber, when it was necessary to deliver a packet or letter into his own hands. We shall extract Mr. Marsham's account of this part of the office, as it will give a striking proof of the extensive privileges of the esquire during the night.

"In all the time of my duty and service upon my royal master, his late majesty of blessed memory, I, being esquire of the body, did always come into the king's bed-chamber without asking leave of any; and I did every night, having my sword and cloak on, bring in the mortar into his majesty's bed-chamber, and stayed there as long as I pleased, which was commonly till his majesty went into bed; and, having received the word from his majesty, I set the guard, and after *all-night* was served up, I had the sole and absolute command of the house above and below stairs, as his majesty did declare upon several occasions to be the right of my place. And in the time of war, upon all occasions that required, I went into the bed-chamber, and awaked his majesty, and delivered all letters and messages to his majesty: and many times, by his majesty's command, I returned answers to the letters, and delivered orders. And I remember that, coming to the king's bed-chamber door,

door, which was bolted on the inside, the late earl of Bristol, then being in waiting, and lying there, he unbolted the door upon my knocking, and asked me what news?—I told him I had a letter for the king. The earl then demanded the letter of me, which I told him I could deliver to none but the king himself: upon which the king said—'The esquire is in the right; for he ought not to deliver any letter or message to any but myself; he being at this time the chief officer of my house; and if he had delivered the letter to any other, I should not have thought him fit for his place.'

"And before this time I never heard that any offered to hinder the esquire from coming to the king, and I have frequently brought letters and messages to the bed-side when the duke of Richmond was in waiting."

This access to the bed-chamber was however soon afterwards abolished; and the office was at last reduced to a post of honour only. Mr. Pegge then examines the esquire's rank, and the station which he occupies in processions; but this subject is easily abridged. The origin of the office seems to have been coeval with knighthood. Chaucer was certainly a 'squire of the body to Edward the Third; for, in two successive commissions, he is styled *scutifer & armiger*, which are supposed to be progressive ranks; the duty of each branch of the office is ascertained by the title. A Woodhouse of Chaucer have, without reason, been adduced to show his rank.

"For by that mortar, which I se breathe,  
Know I full well, that day is not far hence."

The mortar was a wick in the middle of a cake of wax, which, when burned, resembled the instrument called a mortar. It was supposed, that unless Chaucer had had access to the king's chamber, after ALL-NIGHT was served, he could not have known this word. But the reason and the etymology are still fanciful. *Mortier a ventile* is, at this moment, in old French authors, a name for a war taper; and the name of a 'mortar, wherein you bray spices,' is comparatively modern. Some of the terms in this, and the subsequent Dissertation, seem to us to admit of a more simple explanation. We would submit, with deference to Mr. Pegge, whether *callers* to the lord chamberlain, if *any thing lack*, for his person or *pleasaunce*, does not mean, that it was part of the 'squire's office to call the lord chamberlain, instead of styling them 'retainers' to him. Again, the *herberger* seems to be the officer who provides the forage; and not the 'harbinger;' in the subsequent Dissertation, the gentlemen of the privy chamber are said to have *herbigage* for their horses. But these hints are only suggested.

gested for the author's attention: errors are as easily committed by looking too deep for a meaning, as by a careless inattention.

The gentlemen of the privy chamber, whose institution and history Mr. Pegge next examines, are the confidential officers by day; though in rank they seem to have been, at least in the privy chamber, subordinate to the gentlemen ushers. A certain number of these gentlemen, who were usually of rank and weight, always attended the king in war, in processions, journeys, &c. They seem to have been alike attendants and companions of their sovereign; their salary was not mean; and, in point of precedence, they were respectable. But, from the reign of James I. they have been reduced almost to a post of honour; for, in the fatal hour of retrenchment, their salary was abolished, though their duty was for a time continued. In a subsequent period, their office was still respectable: they basked in the sunshine of a court; and probably were considered as in a state of probation for embassies and other offices.

The present appointment of a gentleman of the privy chamber runs in general terms, viz. "To have, hold, exercise, and enjoy, the said place, together with all rights, profits, privileges, and advantages thereunto belonging, in as full and ample manner as any gentleman of his majesty's most honourable privy chamber doth or hath held and enjoyed, or of right ought to hold and enjoy the same." These are the words as they stand at this day; but anciently the rights and privileges were described at large, and in an appointment, anno 1662, (the 14th of king Charles the Second), are thus set forth: "His person is not to be arrested or detained without leave first had and obtained—neither is he to bear any public office, nor to be impanelled on any inquest or jury—nor to be warned to serve at assizes or sessions, whereby he may pretend excuse to neglect his majesty's service." This points immediately at an exemption from the shrievalty of a county, where the nomination is in the king—and the reason is given for the dispensation.

This is now the only advantage of the office; but the duty is also confined. These gentlemen appear at a coronation, a royal funeral, and the solemn entrance of a Venetian ambassador, which happens only once in a reign. A description of this procession, in 1762, is added from the *Gazette* of that time.

The Second Part of this work is just published; and our account of the former was delayed from the expectation of it. Mr. Pegge's object in this Part is the establishment and history of the band of gentlemen pensioners, who retain a greater share

share of duty than the gentlemen of the privy chamber, but who have also lost a great part of their ancient splendour and importance.

The early period of their history has been little known to themselves or their historians. The institution of this band was attributed to Henry VII. but the industry of Mr. Pegge has discovered the original statutes, and consequently fixed their origin in the early part of his successor's reign. The prudent and cautious father of the spirited and magnificent Henry, indeed established a band of fifty archers, under the title of *yeomen of the guard*; but his son wanted a more splendid retinue. He consequently formed his new and sumptuous troop of *gentlemen*, as attendants and companions. We cannot enter into a long detail of the nature of this institution, and shall only observe, that it consisted of the sons and brothers of the first noblemen in the kingdom; and in its rolls are to be found the names of personages most distinguished for their spirit and gallantry, as well as for political judgment and extensive learning. Their own dress was splendid; and they had each a page, one or two archers, and a servant. It is not to be doubted, but the decorations of the gentleman pensioner, and his attendant, were in the gayest style, since his time of life, family, and fortune were such, as would inspire a love of show, and he was in the service of a young prince, whose splendour was conspicuous in the eyes of Europe. Henry had however a pattern for this institution, in the *gens d'armes* of France: their customs were similar; and they seem under mutual obligations, in this respect, to each other.

It is commonly supposed, that this band was soon dissolved on account of the expence; for each *spear*, including the attendants, received three shillings and four pence, per day, (6ol. 16s. 8d. per ann.) Indeed, from its first institution, in 1509, it scarcely again appears till 1539; but, in the Eltham statutes, we find them complete, more fully officered than at first, though, probably on that account, the pay is there limited to 5ol. per annum. They appear again in 1550; and were mustered in 1551. The first description of the band is in Hall.

"This band," says he, consisted of fifty gentlemen to be *spears*, every of them to have an archer, a demi-lance, and a gonfrill, and every spear to have three great horses, to be attendant on his person; of the which band the earl of Essex was captain, and sir John Peachy lieutenant. This ordinance continued but a while, the charges were so great; for there were none of them, but they and their horses were apparelled and trapped in cloth of gold, silver, and goldsmiths work."



They do not appear in any public procession till the year 1539, when they are mentioned in the description of the ceremonies, with which Anne of Cleves was received, by the disappointed monarch, who did not suffer his disgust to tarnish the splendour destined to attend her arrival. The little alterations, made by Mary, were soon restored by Elizabeth, who possessed the magnificence of her father. We must here take leave of their splendour. Lord Hunsdon, their captain during the latter part of this reign, describes them, in a letter to James, in the following manner.

‘ They are in all fifty gentlemen, besides myself, the lieutenant, standard-bearer, clerk of the cheque, and gentleman harbinger, chosen out of the best and ancientest families of England, and some of them sons to earls, barons, knights, and esquires, men thereunto especially recommended for their worthyness and sufficiency, without any stain or taint of dishonour, or disparagement in blood. Her majesty, and other princes, her predecessors, have found great use of their service, as well in the guard and defence of their royal persons, as also in sundry other important employments, as well civil as military, at home and abroad; insomuch as it hath served them always as a nursery to breed up deputies of Ireland, ambassadors into foreign parts, counsellors of state, captains of the guard, governors of places, and commanders in the wars, both by land and sea. Withall, I cannot omit to signify to your majesty their alacrity and affection wherewith, upon the decease of her highness, they did embrace your majesty’s title and cause; insomuch that, upon my motion, they did most willingly offer themselves to a strong and settled combination, by a solemn oath and vow, to defend and prosecute your majesty’s lawful right and title by themselves, their friends, allies, and followers (being no contemptible portion of this kingdom) to the last drop of their blood, against all impugnors whatsoever; with which humble and dutifull desires of theirs to serve your majesty, I thought it my part and duty to acquaint you, and with all humbly desire to know your majesty’s pleasure and resolution as concerning them.”

At a subsequent period, lord Clare declared that, when he was in the band, he did not know ‘ a worse man in it than himself,’ though he had then an inheritance of 4000*l.* per annum.

But all these representations had little effect on the indigent and parsimonious successor of Elizabeth. The rank of the pensioners gradually decayed; the diet, appointed by Elizabeth, was retrenched; and in lieu of it board-wages were allowed. This disgraceful change seems to have been continued during the reign of the first Charles, when their attendance

was

was rigidly exacted. During the protectorate, the band was neglected: they had too loyally adhered to their master, to expect Cromwell's attention; and, in that precise court, show was very little regarded. But the mistrustful usurper retained the guard nearly with the same title: twenty gentlemen, with axes, were ordered constantly to attend him. With Charles the Second, the pensioners appear almost in their former splendour; but, in 1676, were reduced to forty, their present number.

We have thus given a short history of this company, with as great precision as our limits will permit. Their present duty is only mounting guard in the presence chamber; but, formerly, they served both as horse and foot on different occasions, with their spears or their axes. They received orders to attend with their horses in 1745; and they will perhaps allow us to express our earnest wishes, that we may never see them in every part of their former office.—Though the subjects of these two little volumes be not capable of much ornament, yet they are highly interesting to those who are fond of similar speculations; and we imagine that few possess so little curiosity, as not to derive considerable entertainment from inquiries, so nearly related to the former customs, and to the history of their own country.

*A Review of Locke's Denial of Innate Ideas, Secondary Qualities, &c. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Law.*

LOCKE was opposed with violence, while he lived, and the warring spirits were scarcely subdued by his death. But his political tenets have lately procured him more enemies or admirers than his metaphysical disquisitions: they have been the touchstone by which all his merit has been appreciated. The reviewer before us, if he has felt this bias, has concealed it, and the metaphysics of Locke are his chief object; but his discernment and acquisitions are not sufficiently considerable to prepare him for this sharp contest. He is seldom precise or distinct in his conceptions; and more seldom clear or accurate in his language. The metaphysician, who can confound 'innate ideas' and 'inherent faculties,' can judge as well of his subject, as a deaf man of the tone of a harpichord, or a blind one of the colours of a rainbow. Our readers will be contented with this part of the reasoning, as a short specimen.

• He talks of inherent faculties (end of sec. 2.) What is it but these very inherent faculties, so named by him, by which

which a supposition of innate ideas had generally taken place? Locke, by his inherent faculty, attempts to overturn what cannot be overturned without proving that all along fallacious by which it is overturned; and it seems very strange that he should admit inherent faculties, and yet so strenuously argue against the steadfastness of moral light: chap. iii. sec. 9, 10, 11, 12, 13. Moreover, how do his citations in the 9th section of that chapter, agree with these words of this? "And no less unreasonable would it be to attribute several truths to the impressions of nature and innate characters, when we may observe in ourselves faculties fit to attain as easy and certain knowledge of them, as if they were originally imprinted on the mind." Now, I say, are the ignorances and errors which he speaks of, reconcilable with such inherent faculties which he, somewhere terms native? And I would ask, what truths our faculties "easily and certainly" enable us to attain, since he affirms in the next page that "whatsoever is, is," and "it is impossible for the same thing to be, and not to be," are unknown to a great part of mankind, and (chap. iv. sec. 6, particularly) "That many, that whole nations, civilized nations, have no knowledge of the grand and manifest truths, the existence of God, or different and contrary opinions of him:" see chap. iv. sect. 17. Is it imaginable that any civilized nation should be without persons possessed of so important a knowledge, "easily and certainly attainable?" Nay, is not the appellation manifest contradictorily in terms applied to truths thus unknown? Then, on the other side, if the facts are as he represents them, then I say, his inherent faculties, substitutes of innate ideas, become likewise inane: If whole nations, whole civilized nations, are destitute of such persons, mankind can lay no claim to steadfastness, to any consistent ideas, innate or adscitious.

We should not have stated this question, if the strange inattention of our reviewer to definitions, and his mistakes on the most obvious subjects, had not rendered it necessary. The point in dispute is, whether all our ideas (taking the word in its common meaning) cannot be ultimately derived from those which are conveyed to the mind by the organs of sense, though their appearance be changed by abstraction or combination; so that, in different circumstances, they appear as sensual, intellectual, or in all the variety between each. This question has little connection with inherent faculties, unless so far as both are related to mind. It may indeed be a question whether, as the mind is a distinct being; it may not possess ideas as well as faculties; but, in our present state, it will be impossible to resolve it. If the most wanton ramblings of

imagination; or the most distorted images of a sick man's dreams, present nothing but the mangled limbs, or unnatural combinations of what was originally derived from our senses, the question will not only be incapable of an answer, but unnecessary: if we possess a source from which our intellectual riches may be derived; and if nothing appears in the offspring inconsistent with the qualities of the parent, no rule of philosophy, no dictate of common sense, should induce us to look up to another origin. The result then will lead us to attend to facts; and this is the result, to which we wish to bring every metaphysical disquisition, since by the means of it, we shall acquire materials for a work much wanted, a Natural History of the Human Mind. This History must consist chiefly of facts: many are at present ascertained; but they lie scattered in numberless volumes: many are still to be enquired into, and new ones to be observed. Dr. Hartley's work will furnish the best foundation; for, amidst many errors, there are the most valuable observations; and the extensive influence of association is, in the metaphysics, as splendid a discovery as gravity, in the natural world. Why is not this system illustrated by a liberal commentary, instead of being mutilated by, and frittered into, extracts?

We find nothing in this work which materially invalidates the doctrines of Locke, relating either to innate ideas or secondary qualities. The late discoveries in natural philosophy and chemistry, require indeed that some alteration should be made in the latter subject; but this is an assistance which our author is not qualified to give, and which, perhaps at last, would not essentially contribute either to the pleasures or advantage of mankind. These are errors which may rest in peace; their continuance or amendment would be equally useless in the consequences. The rest of the Review relates to Locke's dispute with the bishop of Worcester, which is not greatly elucidated in the present pamphlet.

We do not think that Locke's reputation is much affected by this antagonist. His style is the flippant pertness of a modern author; and the little respect shown, in every part of this work, for a man so highly respectable as Locke was, will disgust every attentive reader. We are obliged to the author for not transcribing the passages on which he animadvert; though then his book would have contained *something* valuable, but it would have been contaminated, like a metal in its matrix, and we should have regretted the trouble of separation. At present however it is difficult, and often inconvenient, to compare the text with the commentary.

*The Theory of Harmonics: or, an Illustration of the Grecian Harmonicæ. By John Keeble, Organist of St. George's Church, Hanover Square. 4to. 1l. 1s. White.*

MR. Keeble has enjoyed for many years, the reputation of being the best organ-player in London, in the old style. We soon discovered that he had learned the theory of music from Dr. Pepusch, who numbered among his scholars Dr. Boyce, Mr. Travers, Mr. Kuhn, Mr. Immins, and many other musicians of the same class. It was a firm principle with Pepusch, in common with other great men, that we must recur to the Greek school for the true principles of music, as well as of the other arts. Consequently, he taught all his pupils that every thing was contained in the tetrachord, the magical tetrachord, which, like lord Peter's brown loaf, was the quintessence of mutton, beef, &c. Now, though we hold it of great moment to be acquainted with what was formerly known in every science, yet if modern improvements must be cramped by ancient principles, it were better that they had remained unknown. Mr. Keeble is also a great advocate for the tetrachord; but we are very glad that his practice has got the better of his theory, or we should have lost much of the pleasure we have received from his masterly performance at St. George's church. So far from modern music being indebted to the Greeks, that we date its existence within the last hundred years. We mean by music, that judicious mixture of harmony and melody which constitutes the art, and not a mathematical investigation of the proportional vibrations of an octave, a fifth, &c, nor the different ways of disposing of the semitone, in the fourth; nor how to compose a fourth, of sounds less than a semitone, and more than a tone, &c.

Mr. Keeble seems to be thoroughly persuaded that the knowledge of numbers is necessary for the practice of music.

'This ease and simplicity will naturally engage the attention of the professor, who will readily give up some part of his time from that more severe and laborious practice, which all instruments now require, to a study that will not only lessen his labours, but at the same time encrease his mechanical powers, and raise his reputation on the most solid and lasting foundation.'

How the knowing that certain intervals are expressed by particular ratios, and the various methods of combination, can increase his 'mechanical powers,' will be doubted by some of our best performers, who make not the least pretensions to the mathematics; and who would smile, to be told that they could not do without something, of which they have never

felt the want. The truth is, that the philosophic part of music, by which we mean the generation and propagation of sounds, is distinct from the mathematical part, or the application of numbers, to express the proportion of intervals, and both are unnecessary to the art of composition and performance.—A man may be an excellent composer and performer, and yet totally ignorant of the pulses of the air, or in what proportion they move: he is not hindered from hearing the effect of musical intervals, because he is ignorant of their ratios;

‘For all a rhetorician’s rules

Teach nothing but to *name* his tools.’

We cannot agree with the author, when he says, that harmony is rather the parent than the offspring of melody. All composers know, that it is the tune which is first suggested, and they add the bass afterwards. Nay, there are many tunes that never had a bass, until several years after their invention; which could not have been the case, had they depended on harmony for their existence.

In the treatise itself, Mr. Keeble has given a very just account of the ancient system, as delivered in the authors collected by Meibomius, with the ratios of intervals, discovered by different mathematicians; but though we do not find any thing new in his application of them, nor what can be of the least service to a modern, which was promised in the Introduction, we recommend this book to those who wish to have some knowledge of what the Greek writers have said on the subject. We must premise only, that the passages quoted from them, may frequently be understood in many different ways, and sometimes are capable of any meaning an interpreter may chuse to put on them, which is nearly the same as having no meaning at all. We shall select the conclusion of the First Part as a specimen, because it is a short analysis of the whole, by the author himself.

‘I have now gone through the seven parts into which the ancients divided the Harmonica. I have given each part a musical construction, by which their mutual relation and agreement have been explained, and reconciled to the laws of harmony, beginning with the first idea or definition of a musical sound, and proceeding to the knowledge of intervals, or the distance to be observed between one sound and another in the formation of genders, systems, tones, or modes; from which we have been able to form and regulate the several scales, and discover the relation which every sound in a scale has to its principal or fundamental sound; likewise how any given scale, taken as a principal one, is connected with others, by which,

under

under certain limitations with respect to the dieses or position of the hemitones, the consonant and dissonant mutations are regulated; the number also of sharp and flat dieses necessary to perfect every scale, has been collected and disposed in a particular order, proper for the discovery of the genders, as well as the spiss, and all other intervals, which can be wanted in the most elaborate compositions.

I was induced to, and encouraged in, this extensive and arduous task, by some discoveries which appeared to be of the greatest importance towards the undertaking and explaining of a theory, which had for many ages been only a subject of dispute; neither party being able to determine any thing conclusive in support of their different opinions, either for, or against, the harmonic principles of the Grecian doctrine. Nor could I have flattered myself with better success, had not the inversion of the first diagram offered something the most interesting and agreeable to my wishes. To this succeeded the order of placing the seven species of diapason in each diagram, which encouraged me yet more to proceed; but when the tetrachords, in their various positions, could not be formed without the sharp and flat dieses, and the conjunction and disjunction could not be explained without the application of the harmonic principles, I remained no longer in doubt, but was fully convinced that without a perfect knowledge of harmony, it must have been impossible to have formed a theory so expressive and curious as the Grecian in all its parts; nor can it be understood, unless explained by the same laws by which it was originally formed.

That Mr. Keeble 'may give some satisfaction to those who object to all theories not demonstrated by numbers and supported by the ratio,' he has determined to try how far the power of numbers will carry him 'in a theory of harmonics, agreeably to the Pythagorean doctrine, which will be the subject of the Second Part of this Work.'

*Tales of the Castle: or, Stories of Instruction and Delight. Being Les Veillées du Chateau. Written in French by Madame la Comtesse de Genlis. Translated into English by Thomas Holcroft. 5 Volumes. 12mo. 15s. in Boards. Robinson.*

**I**F madame de Genlis is not always sufficiently cautious; if the accidental occurrence of an improper action, though sanctified by custom, destroys that disgust which it ought to excite, and we perceive the fault without the antidote, we should acknowledge, that she very seldom offends the nicest morality; and her works commonly abound with the purest lessons. The refined sensibility to error, which her general instructions must necessarily produce, will make her pupils critics on herself, and raise them into judges, even while

they are humble hearers. At the same time we must add, that her stories are adapted with judgment, and wound up with exquisite art; with art the more excellent, because unperceived. She is mistress of the utmost recesses of the human heart, and reaches it by winding passages, to some imperceptible, and by others with difficulty explored. While she instructs her children in the most refined morality, and awakens in them the most delicate sensibility, both to what is proper and beautiful, she amends the judgment and sharpens the perception. The acquisitions seem to be their own; and the young pupils seize with avidity, seemingly as the fruits of their own labour, truths to which the mother has led them, and which she has cleared from the surrounding obstructions. If this recommendation may seem too warm, the best apology is, that it is written from the heart, though with the fullest approbation from the judgment. When we are much pleased, we may readily be induced to exaggerate; but those who feel the bias will be most careful to guard against its effects.

The work is intended for children of ten or twelve years of age, according to their improvements or capacities. Perhaps, in this climate, we may extend the period farther; but it will be an amusing instructive companion for persons in very different circumstances: few have received an education so exact but some noxious weeds will have appeared, which a culture of this kind is well calculated to destroy. It is a just remark of the author, (we translate from her preface, which Mr. Holcroft has not preserved, because it is not generally interesting,) that, 'before a child can receive new or refined ideas, he must be taught numerous common-place ones, which every person can teach, and no one should write. These common-places are more valuable than the most ingenious thoughts: they are generally known, only because they are just and striking; as good verses pass into proverbs, and moral sentiments, remarkable for their justness, are retained, repeated, and reach even to the common people, who render them sacred by adopting them.' This work contains no sentiments of this kind: they are rather new and refined, not subtle speculations of little utility, but reflections which regulate the heart, correct the taste, and tend to direct the conduct. These are exemplified by suitable histories, properly adapted to the age of the hearers, or to the errors, which are the objects of the governess.

The plan of the work is simple and unadorned. An officer, ordered to join his regiment, during a war, leaves an amiable wife and three children. The mother retires from Paris to  
the



the chateau, and, with the son's tutor, superintends the education of the boy and two girls. The winter evenings are enlivened by stories, sometimes selected from history, but more frequently invented for a particular purpose, to illustrate or enforce the subjects of their conversations. The marquis returns, and brings the family to Paris, where the instructions and examples relate rather to the formation of a just taste, by proper observations on works of art.

It is not easy to give a specimen of the histories, for those which are conducted with the greatest address, are too extensive for our limits. We shall therefore insert a short conversation, that the reader may judge of the manner of our author.

Madame de Clémire remained two days longer on her visit to M. de la Palinière, and then returned to Champceery; the abbé not having been satisfied with Cæsar, in the morning, would not permit him to be present at the evening's amusement. Cæsar, being greatly vexed at this punishment, became a little sullen, and went to bed without making an apology to the abbé; he wished him a good night!

He had been in bed about half an hour, when madame de Clémire entered his chamber. Are you asleep my son, said she, in a low voice?

Not yet, mamma, answered Cæsar, in a sorrowful tone.

I should be surprised if you were, replied madame de Clémire; for if it be true that you have a good heart, of which I cannot doubt, it is impossible you should pass a peaceful night. What! my son; have you laid your head upon your pillow with fullness and rancour in your bosom, against a man you ought to love? Have you permitted him to leave your chamber, without an endeavour to be reconciled to him, and left him thus for twelve hours? Oh Cæsar!—Listen, my child, to an anecdote I read this morning.

The duke of Burgundy, father to the late king, was one day angry with one of his valets de chambre; but as soon as he was in bed, he said to the same man who lay in his room, "Pray forgive what I said to you this evening, that I may go to sleep." Judge, my son, if he had been capable of going to bed without being reconciled to his governor, and yet this young prince was then but seven years old, you are almost ten.

I assure you, mamma, I could not go to sleep then; permit me to rise and ask M. Frémont's pardon.

Instantly! come, my son.

So saying, madame de Clémire gave a robe de chambre to Cæsar, which he hastily slipped on, and, conducted by his mother, went to M. Frémont's apartment; he knocked gently at the door, and M. Frémont, who had already put on his nightcap, seemed much surprised at the sight of Cæsar; the latter advanced, and with his eyes swimming in tears, made the most humble and affectionate excuses. When he had finished speaking, the abbé, instead of answering him, turned coolly towards

madame de Clémire, and said, " You are very good, madame, and since it is your desire, I will endeavour to forgive what is past." Cæsar seemed astonished, that the abbé had not addressed himself to him; the abbé added, as to you, sir, I have no answer to make: it is to your mamma alone I am indebted for this visit and this apology.

' I assure you, dear M. Frémont, mamma did not bid me get up and come here.

' But, sir, had you been at present in my chamber, if madame, your mother, had not made you sensible of the cruelty of your behaviour to me? (Cæsar here cast his eyes upon the ground, and began to weep.) Be certain, sir, continued the abbé, if, of your own proper motion, without being either counselled or excited, you had come to me, be certain, I say, I should have received you with friendship; though you would still have been guilty of a very great error, that of permitting me to leave your room, without testifying regret for your fault; I therefore repeat, sir, out of respect to your excellent mamma, I shall willingly pardon you; that is to say, I shall not inflict any punishment on you for the fullness you have discovered.

' Well, sir, said Cæsar, then I will inflict one on myself; I give you my word of honour to deprive myself, during a fortnight, of attending our evening stories, which is the greatest sacrifice I can make; but, dear sir, do not treat me with this severe coolness, and I shall then support my punishment with courage.

' As he spoke thus, the abbé, with an affectionate air, held out his arms, into which Cæsar leapt, weeping for joy that he had obtained his pardon; and more especially, that he had performed an action which had reconciled him to himself.

' You see, my son, said madame de Clémire, how much it costs us when we defer to make reparation for our errors; this is to aggravate them, and nothing but extraordinary actions, and painful sacrifices, can then obtain forgiveness. Had you, in going to rest, made a proper apology to M. Frémont, you would have been pardoned, and not for a fortnight deprived of your greatest pleasure.'

The faults of madame de Genlis, in this work, are, we think, fewer than those which occur in *Adelaide and Theodore*, reviewed in our fifty-sixth volume, page 300; and these are in general softened or omitted by the translator, who has performed his task with great judgment and propriety. We shall select his own account of his attempts, of which, on examining the original, we entirely approve.

' He who speaks of himself, must either resolve to say little, or be in great danger of becoming either vain or impertinent. Of the present version, therefore, let it only be observed, it was never intended to be any thing like literal; that the phrases are sometimes contracted and sometimes lengthened; that the liberty of adding

adding a thought is sometimes taken; that the picture of madame Busca's infirmities, in the story of Pamela (vol. iii.) is softened; that the incident of Doralice sucking the eyes of Eglantine (vol. I.) is omitted (because it is supposed they would both have offended, even violently, the delicacy of an English reader); that, in consequence of the last mentioned omission, it was necessary to add circumstances and touches to give a sufficient degree of interest to the story; and that other little freedoms have been taken; such as, not permitting the sage Thelismar to tell his pupil Alphonso a falsehood, even though with a virtuous intention; and of leaving out certain notes which it was deemed were either too scientific for their situation, or too uninteresting; as well as of substituting some very few others, from the Cyclopædia, where it could evidently be done to advantage.

There are a few instances of inattention to the effect of language, which we wish to point out: they cannot be called errors. In page 9, the translator says, '*no more we did not use to do*, mamma; but, since our governess has had the fever.' The literal translation is, 'we never did gossip with them, mamma, but since our governess has had an *ague*,' &c. Again, 'Ah my dear Henrietta, said Delphine, I see how happy you are, and how much you merit *so to be*.' The passage should be rendered:—'Ah my dear Henrietta, said Delphine, *much affected*, I see, *indeed*, your happiness, and how much you deserve it.' We should scarcely have expected the words '*qui est riche*,' to have been translated 'who is well to do.' These are very slight circumstances, which do not affect the sense; but they deserve Mr. Holcroft's attention in a future edition.

We shall only add, that the author's guides, on the subject of natural history, have in some instances, misled her. The young pupils, having discovered some fondness for the seducing wonders of the Fairy Tales, are told by the mother, that the wonders of art and nature are not less astonishing than those of fancy; and are at the time, on the basis of solid truth. To prove this, she composes a tale, entitled the '*Fairyism*,' or perhaps more neatly translated by Mr. Holcroft, the '*Magic of Art and Nature*,' in which the principal phenomena of nature, and the inventions of art, are displayed, in the adventures of the hero. She has given a very ingenious apology for any defects which may appear in this tale, extended almost through the second volume of the translation, by her reasons for having declined more able assistance.

'My dear abbé, answered madame de Clémire, a woman ought never to suffer a man to add a single word to her writings; if she does, the man she consults, let him be who he may, will always pass for the original inventor, and she will be accused of putting her name to the works of others. One

may be a very good woman, yet a very bad writer, but not were one to take the credit of other people's labours; one ought, therefore, carefully to avoid whatever might give room to so injurious an accusation. Scarcely has there been one woman successful in her writings, and not accused of this kind of baseness.

The notes contain explanations of passages which would not have been easily understood, and would have interrupted and embarrassed the narratives. The authorities, as we have observed, are not always the best in philosophy; but on the subjects of the fine arts and belles lettres, they are less exceptionable. On the whole, the pleasure which we have received from these volumes, prevents us from closing the article, without repeating our warmest recommendation of them.

*The Carmelite. A Tragedy. Performed at the Theatre Royal, Drury-lane. By R. Cumberland, Esq. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Dilly.*

IT is not uncommon to find a piece admired as a whole, which, when minutely examined, appears both inaccurate and faulty. The play before us was said to be received with loud bursts of applause; and perhaps few dramatic compositions are better calculated to excite them. Even distant from the artificial delusions of the scene, we were interested, animated, or softened; the feelings were hurried away, without the interposition of the judgment, and sometimes rather in spite of it. Perhaps Mr. Cumberland wishes for no greater eulogy, since it comprehends every thing that is required in a dramatic representation; and the magic can be easily explained. Few imaginations are strong enough to feel the reality of a whole; and the changes in the scenery, the music, or other trappings of the stage, destroy the delusion at the end of every scene. This is demonstrated by the pleasure we feel from the detached parts of Shakspeare, which are often so artificially connected, and the unities of time and place so completely violated, that, if the mind reverted for a moment to former passages, it would be incredulous and disgusted. At the beginning therefore of each scene, it assumes the different situations, however produced, as established facts, and pursues them in the subsequent spectacle. In the Carmelite we often find distinct passages laboured with the greatest care, and worked to the highest pitch: in these, the master's hand has been chiefly employed with success, and we can seldom hint a fault; while the whole is sometimes incongruous, and somewhat improbable.

The story is simple, and well adapted for a dramatic composition. Saint Valori a Norman knight, assumed the cross, and

and fought in Palestine; but, on his return, was set on by assassins, hired by lord Hildebrand, in a narrow pass of the Pyreneans, and left breathless and 'weltering in his blood.' He was preserved by some Venetian merchants, but, in his voyage from Venice, was captured by a Saracen, and detained in slavery. After twenty years absence, he returned, and found Hildebrand in possession of his castle in Normandy; and, at the moment, when he was about to discover himself to his vassals, a herald arrived from Henry, to summon him to meet the champion of the supposed widow of St. Valork. The knight himself, who had assumed the habit of a carmelite, joins Hildebrand in the voyage; and, in consequence of his new character, acquires his confidence. They are shipwrecked on the Isle of Wight, near the widow's castle, the scene of the tragedy.

The play commences with their preservation from the inhumanity of the natives, by the active interposition of Montgomeri. Hildebrand, weighed down with guilt, appalled with horror, at the recollection of his crimes, wounded and disordered, in consequence of his shipwreck, dies, full of penitence, before the day of combat. St. Valori sees his lady, whose reason seems to be affected by her loss, and is on the point of discovering himself, when he perceives her partiality to Montgomeri, and learns, that he is supposed to be already her husband, or soon to assume that character. The incidents relating to the intended combat, and the distressing jealousy of St. Valori, form the chief substance of the play. Montgomeri is however her son, and the champion whom she designs to oppose to Hildebrand; so that, on this discovery, the conclusion is happy.

The story of a plot is like a pantomime, when we are admitted behind the scenes; it is an unfair and disadvantageous representation, and necessary only when we are obliged to analyse it. The improbabilities in the story are numerous. St. Valori is supposed to be murdered by unknown assassins, and yet Hildebrand is summoned to the lists. Hildebrand had indeed taken possession of St. Valori's Norman domains, though we know not on what foundation; for, while the property of the lower orders were unprotected in those times of licentiousness and tumult, the wardship of orphans, and the protection of widows of rank, were sufficiently provided for. The crown seldom overlooked such advantageous accidents. Again, Montgomeri is brought up in the castle of his mother, as a page, though she seemed only to delay her demands on Hildebrand, till her son could be her champion. This situation was by no means calculated to ensure his success against an able and experienced

perienced warrior: it rather doomed him to certain destruction; and so far from his being trained in the proper exercises, that the contempt and jealousy of St. Valori are particularly excited, by the meanness of his supposed rival. It is improbable also that Gyfford, an old servant, who remembers his master, should not know that his mistress had a son.

In the conduct of the piece, there are also errors. The weakened reason of Matilda is, with a few exceptions, well supported in the first act; but we hear so little of it afterwards, that, if Mr. Cumberland had not expressly told Mrs. Siddons, in the Dedication, that '*artificial situations, studied incidents, and tricking declamation, must be thrown aside,*' where she is to appear: that the author who writes a character for her, must '*not call her into starts and attitudes, merely because he has a form so striking to display at his command,*' if it were not for these declarations, we should have suspected that this partial phrenzy of the brain was only calculated for the appearance of the actress. It has very little connection with the subsequent events. It might have been an error, in an inferior writer, to have explained the relations of the different parties so early, as it would destroy expectation, and lessen the interest; but Mr. Cumberland perhaps wished to show, that the magic of his language, and the force of the situations, would rise superior to such artificial arrangements.

The first scene between St. Valori and his lady is admirably executed; and yet, from too great fondness for metaphor, and some, perhaps, accidental resemblance to a comic scene in the Drummer, its effect is weakened. The following passages, with a little exception, are very beautiful.

*Matilda.*

*Alas!*

I am a helpless solitary woman;  
A widow, who have lost—O God! O God!  
'Twill turn my brain to speak of what I've lost;  
It is amongst the lightest of my griefs  
That I have lost myself.

*St. Val.*

*Thyself!*

*Matik.*

*My senses:*

At best they are but half my own, sometimes  
I am bereft of all. Therefore I lead  
On this lone coast a melancholy life,  
And shut my gate, but not my charity,  
Against the stranger.

*St. Val.*

*Oh, support me, Heaven!*

'Tis she, 'Tis she! that woe-tun'd voice is her's;  
Those eyes, that cast their pale and wailing fires  
With such a melting languor thro' my soul,  
Those eyes are *ber's* and *sorrow's*.

*Again,*

Again,

*Matild.* Oh, approach and enter—  
If you can weep, we will converse whole days;  
And speak no other language; we will sit,  
*Like fountain statues, face to face oppos'd,*  
And each to other tell our griefs in tears,  
Yet neither utter word.'

*St. Val.* Oh, tell me have you then endur'd  
Twenty long years of mournful widowhood?

*Matil.* They say 'tis twenty years ago he died;  
I cannot speak of time: it may be so;  
Yet I shou'd think 'twas yesterday.

*St. Val.* I saw you—

*Matil.* You saw me! When?

*St. Val.* When you did wed your lord.—  
The paragon of all this world you was.  
Grief has gone o'er you like a wintry cloud.—  
You've heard this voice before.

*Matil.* I think I have:  
It gives a painful sense of former days;  
I've heard such voices in my dreams; sometimes  
Convers'd with them all night; but then they told me  
My senses wander'd.—Pray you, do not harm me:  
Leave me, good monk; indeed I know you not.

*St. Val.* I wore no monkish cowl in that gay hour  
When you wore bridal white. On Pagan ground,  
Beneath the banner of the Christian cross,  
Faithful I fought; I was God's soldier then,  
Tho' now his peaceful servant.

*Matil.* You have fought  
Under the Christian cross!—You shake my brain.

*St. Val.* Peace to your thoughts! I will no farther move  
you:  
Shall I not lead you hence?

*Matil.* Stand off; stand off!  
The murderer of Saint Valori is abroad;  
The bloody Hildebrand is on the seas.—  
Rise, rise, ye waves! blow from all points, ye winds,  
And overwhelm th' accursed plank that wafts him over  
In fathomless perdition!—Let him sink,  
He and his hateful crew! let none escape,  
Not one; or if one, let him only breathe  
To tell his tale, and die!—Away! begone!  
You've made me mad.'

We shall select but one scene more, viz. the discovery of St.  
Valori. Full of jealousy and repentment, but still in his assumed  
character, the Carmelite, he had sent a bracelet, given by his  
lady on their first separation, pretending to have received it  
from

from her lord. She then requests to see him, and he returns,  
*Still thinking her the wife of Montgomeri.*

*St. Val.* He wore it like an amulet ; with this  
 Before his heart, first thro' the yawning breach  
 Thy sacred walls, Jerusalem, he storm'd ;  
 Tore down the moony standard, where it hung  
 In impious triumph ; thrice their Pagan swords  
 Shiver'd his mailed crest, as many times  
 That sacred amulet was dy'd in blood.  
 Nearest his heart.

*Matil.* Stop there ! I charge thee, stop !  
 Tell me no more : Oh, follow him no further,  
 For see th' accursed Pyreneans tide,  
 Streaming with blood ; there hellish murder howls ;  
 There madness rages, and with haggard eyes  
 Glares in the craggy pass !—She'll spring upon me  
 If I advance. Oh, shield me from the sight !

*St. Val.* Be calm, collect thyself : it was not there,  
 It was not there Saint Valeri met his death.  
 'Twas not the sword of Hildebrand that slew him ;  
 Tho' pierc'd with wounds, that ambush he sav'd.

*Matil.* What do I hear ? Oh, look upon this altar !  
 Think where you stand, and do not wrong the truth.

*St. Val.* He who is truth itself be witness for me !—  
 Deep was the stroke that dire assassin gave,  
 Yet short of life it stop't ; unhors'd and fall'n,  
 Welt'ring in blood, your wounded husband lay,  
 Till haply found by charitable strangers  
 Journeying to Venice, he was heal'd, restor'd ;  
 And, thence embarking, by a barbarous royer  
 Was captur'd.—Start not ; but repress your terrors.

*Matil.* Admire not that I tremble ; marvel rather  
 That I hear this and live.—Saint Valeri captur'd !  
 The bravest captain of the cross enslav'd  
 By barbarous Pagans !

*St. Val.* Tedious years he suffer'd  
 Of hard captivity—

*Matil.* Oh, where, ye Heavens !  
 Where was your justice then ?—And died he there ?

*St. Val.* 'Twas not his lot to find a distant grave.

*Matil.* Where, where ?—Oh, speak ! release me from  
 the rack !—

Where did my hero fall ?

*St. Val.* Where did he fall !—  
 Nor Pagan swords, nor slavery's galling chain,  
 Nor murderers daggers, Afric's burning clime,  
 Toils, storms, nor shipwreck kill'd him—here he fell !  
 Grief burst his heart—here in this spot he fell !

*[He falls to the ground.]*

*Matil.*



Matil. Ah, horror, horror!—Help, for mercy help!—  
My son, my son! your father lies before you.

*Montgomery runs in, followed by De Courci and Gyfford.*

Montg. My father! Heav'n and earth! Oh, save him;  
save him!

Where shall I turn? See, see! she faints, she falls!

*[Supports her in his arms.]*

De Courci. He is her son.—Awake, look up, my friend!  
Live, live! De Courci bids Saint Valori live.  
Your rival is your son.

*Saint Valori raising himself on his knee unsheaths his dagger.*

St. Val. Off! give me way:

I'll kill him in her arms.

De Courci. He is your son—

Hear me, thou frantic father! I, De Courci,  
I speak to you.—Would you destroy your son?

St. Val. Bind up his wounds. Oh, if I've slain my son,  
Perdition will not own me!

Montg. He revives.

Nature awakens reason.—Hush! be still.

She him.—Withhold him from her arms awhile;

Let all be silence, whilst disposing Heaven,

That showers this joy, shall fit them to receive it.

Matil. How could you say my husband is alive?

Which of you keeps him from me?—Oh! 'tis cruel!

St. Val. Uncase me of my weeds: tear off my coat?  
Now, now she'll know me; now I am Saint Valori.

*[Throws off his habit, and appears in armor.]*

Matil. Stand off! Oh, blessed light of heaven, shine forth!  
Visit my aching eyes, ye solar beams,

And let me see my hero!—Hah! the cross—

He gleams—he glimmers;—like a mist he rises.—

He lives! he lives! I clasp him in my arms.

My lost Saint Valori! my long-lost husband.

*[Runs into his arms.]*

The language is very unequal: we have already remarked that it is too full of metaphor; and we must add, that the metaphors are too frequently broken. Yet, in some instances, its energy is increased by the use of this figure, and the impression is proportionally deeper. The following speech of Saint Valori is an instance of the force of language, in accumulating distress.

St. Val. Oh! call to mind how I have lov'd this woman!

Gyfford, thou know'st it; say, thou faithful servant,

What was my passion; how did absence feed it?

But how can'st thou compute my sum of sorrows?

Years upon years have roll'd since thou wast with me:

Time hath been wearied with my groans, my tears

Have damp'd his wings, till he scarce crept along;

The unpitying sun ne'er wink'd upon my toils;

All day I dragg'd my slavery's chain, all night  
Howl'd to its clanking on my bed of straw;  
And yet these pains were recreation now,  
To those I feel, whilst I resign Matilda.

The following passage is an instance of prettiness, bordering on the conceits of the Italians.

*St. Pal.*

Oh, fall of virtue!

Oh, all ye matron powers of modesty!

How time's revolving wheel wears down the edge

Of sharp affliction! Widows sable weeds

Soon turn to grey; drop a few tears upon them,

And dusky grey is blanch'd to bridal white;

Then comes the sun, shines thro' the drizzling shower,

And the gay rainbōw glows in all its colours.

The Prologue and Epilogue contain nothing remarkable. We have been more particular in our examination of this tragedy, because we wish that authors would not confine their ambition to the applause of the theatre, when they are able to command approbation in the closet. We advise Mr. Cumberland to check his imagination by reason, and to moderate his excess of fire by the cool examination of his judgment.

*A System of Midwifery, theoretical and practical. Illustrated with Copper-Plates. By David Spence, M. D., Licentiate of the Royal College of Physicians, and Fellow of the Society of Scottish Antiquaries. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Murray.*

WE have often had occasion to hint at the distinction between the mere transcriber, who repeats, with little variation, the sentiments of his predecessors in the same department, and the more attentive compiler, who though he adds little to the stock, yet draws from himself, and delivers what he has collected, with grace and apparent novelty. Our present author belongs to the former class, and his system is consequently a patch-work of very different merit. We were surprised to find Dr. Spence so little acquainted with Dr. Hunter's discoveries on the gravid uterus: on this account, in our opinion, he has been frequently guilty of mistakes in the physiological part of his subject. He speaks of the fœtus, as distending the uterus by its own powers, or rather by its increased bulk; and contributes to disseminate that very dangerous error, of ascertaining whether the child has breathed, by the old experiment of the specific gravity of the lungs. A portion of the lungs of a still-born child, he observes, sinks, unless the experiment has been delayed so long, that air may be supposed to be generated by the putrefactive fermentation. This is by no means the only exception; and the omission deserves

sees notice, since it is connected with consequences so important: this, at least, the author could have learned, if he never had attended Dr. Hunter. The doctrine of this celebrated anatomist, relative to the constitution of the placenta, might have been farther out of his way; but, if we mistake not, it has been mentioned in more than one publication. Dr. Spence was convinced of the circulation being carried on in continuous vessels, between the mother and foetus, by a preparation of Dr. Monro, where a vessel was actually seen passing from the mother to the placenta. As we have not had opportunity of examining this appearance, we cannot easily make any remarks on it; but it will be obvious, that, to prove the existence of a direct circulation, the vessel should have been traced through the whole mass to the umbilical cord, or at least, so far as to have been certainly within the foetal part of the placenta. But it is not by a solitary fact that the question must be decided: the weight of evidence, both from reason and experiment, in the sound and diseased state, militates against it.

In the diseases of pregnancy, the author is always afraid of plethora, seemingly for no other reason than that he had attributed the appearance of the catamenia to general fulness. We cannot enter into this dispute, which would not have existed, if a proper distinction had been made between plethora and irregular circulation; between the consequences of a suppressed evacuation, merely from a change of determination, and an actual turgescence. Who can suppose, that repelling a small hæmorrhoidal tumor, whose whole weight scarcely exceeds two drachms, can sensibly affect the mass of circulating fluids? yet we have known it bring on sickness, giddiness, or an actual hæmoptoe. In the same circumstances, our author is afraid of emetics; but those who have observed the violent strainings of some pregnant women, and the comparative mildness, in the effects of ipecacuanha, will not be impeded by similar terrors.

In the practical part, we perceive several omissions. The frequent necessity of immediate delivery, in floodings, is generally known; and the very nice distinction of the moment, when we can no longer delay it, is with great difficulty ascertained. But our author only observes that, when his methods of cure fail, we must proceed to delivery: we will venture to assert that, if he stays for the effects of all his remedies, the operation will often come too late. The very difficult emergency of floodings, from the placenta being attached to the os uteræ, is not once mentioned, though there is not a more doubtful situation for a practitioner, in the whole circle of his art. The useful remark of Dr. Denman, when the arm presents,

sents, seems not to have been known to Dr. Spence, though sufficiently public.

The diseases of children are scarcely explained with more advantage, than those of pregnant women; nor is their management less exceptionable than the rules for conducting delivery.

These are not all the errors or defects of the system, but we hope they are sufficient to excuse us from enlarging on it. The plates are pretty numerous, selected in general from different authors with judgment, and executed with more clearness than we usually perceive in the artists of the neighbouring kingdom. The language is frequently provincial. We are weary of excuses for this deformity. If an author knows not the language in which he chuses to write, he should decline the task; if he is acquainted with it, he ought not to appear in a negligent dishabille.

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*An Enquiry into the various Theories and Methods of Cure in Apoplexies and Palsies. By B. Chandler, M. D. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Johnson.*

**D**R. Chandler, in this Enquiry, examines the different theories of this disease, and chiefly those of Boerhaave and his illustrious commentator, compared with that of Dr. Cullen, in his 'First Lines.' In its form, this work illustrates each aphorism of the present professor; and Dr. Chandler thinks that his system is most rational and consistent, as well as best adapted to that method of cure which experience has confirmed. As we have given a summary account of the Cullenian system on this subject, (vol. lvi. p. 89 and 90,) we need not enlarge on it at present; and shall only observe, that this liberal commentary adds equal credit both to the character of the professor and its author.

On the subject of palsy, Dr. Chandler differs, in some degree, from Dr. Cullen. He thinks that there is a species of the disease of the atonic kind, from debility, or in consequence of too great evacuations: in short, that palsies exist, independent of compression or narcotic vapours, and consequently, that stimulants may be more freely employed than the professor has allowed. We believe that this is in some degree true. There are cases of this kind which we have distinctly perceived, and they may be more general than we commonly suspect. Giddiness, a symptom usually attributed to fullness, may arise from weakness; and other appearances are equally equivocal. The cause will indeed frequently direct the practitioner, if he will attentively enquire into it: at the same time we may be allowed to add, that much still remains on this subject, for a skilful and attentive observer to supply.

*Two Schemes of a Trinity considered, and the Divine Unity asserted. Four Discourses upon Philippians II. 5... 11. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Johnson.*

**T**HIS tract is supposed to have been written by Dr. Lardner; and certainly bears the marks of that writer's pen, particularly his candour and moderation in points of controversy. It consists of four discourses on Phil. ii. 5—11, which, as the editor conjectures, were delivered from the pulpit about the year 1747.

The author is said to have transcribed them for the press: the editor therefore assures us, that he has adhered to the manuscript with the utmost fidelity, and given the reader a proper intimation, wherever he has made the smallest alteration.

The first scheme, which this learned writer considers, is that which is commonly received, and usually called orthodox.

There are, he says, two different sentiments among those who are called orthodox. Some believe three distinct persons, or beings, of the same substance or essence in kind: as three men are distinct, but are of the same kind of substance. Others do not understand the word *person* in the common acceptance: they believe only a modal distinction. We might be disposed to think, that these went into the Sabellian scheme, which holds one person only in the Deity, under three different denominations. But yet they deny it, disclaim Sabellianism, and speak of it as a very pernicious opinion. They say, that though the Father, the Son, and the Holy Ghost, are not three distinct beings, or individuals, there is a distinction, which may be represented by that of three persons.

The author observes, that the latter is the generally received opinion, maintained in that system of doctrine, which is called the Athanasian creed, in the Thirty-nine articles, and in the writings of many eminent divines. But, he thinks, it does not agree with the expressions of the apostle in the text. It is supposed by the professors of this doctrine, that the apostle first speaks of Christ's being of the divine nature and essence, and therein humbling himself, and the human nature as exalted. Whereas the apostle seems to speak all along of one thing or person. 'Let this mind be in you, which was also in Christ Jesus, who made himself of no reputation. Wherefore God also has highly exalted him, and given him a name above every name,' &c. He who had humbled himself is exalted: nor can true deity either be abased or rewarded. The author concludes that this doctrine is obscure, and difficult to

be conceived and understood, if it be not absolutely incomprehensible.

In the second discourse he considers the Arian scheme.

There may be different conceptions concerning Christ among those who must be allowed to be in the main of this opinion. They all suppose the Word, or Son of God, to be a being distinct from the Father, subordinate and inferior to him. But some may ascribe to him higher dignity than others. They who are of this sentiment generally suppose that this great Being, the Word, the son of God, upon our Saviour's conception and birth, animated the body prepared for him; so that our Saviour had not properly a human soul; but the Word, the Son of God, supplied the place of a soul.

Upon this hypothesis the Father is the one supreme God over all, absolutely eternal, underived, unchangeable, independent.

The Son is the first derived being from the Father, and under him employed in creating, preserving, and upholding the world, with, as some say, an especial allotment of the presidentship over the people of Israel.

The Spirit is the third person, also derived from the Father, and of power and perfection inferior to the Son.

Among other objections to this scheme, our author proposes the following: 1. That the Lord Jesus, in the New Testament, is often spoken of as a man. 2. It appears to be an incongruity, as far as we can judge, not paralleled in any of the works of God, that any spirit, except a human soul, should animate a human body. 3. Jesus Christ is represented as having all the innocent infirmities of human nature; but this could not have been, supposing his body to have been animated by a transcendently powerful and active spirit. 4. We do not perceive the Lord Jesus to insist upon his pre-existent greatness and glory, as an argument of obedience to his doctrine. 5. His condescension would have been clearly and frequently enlarged upon in the Gospels and Epistles. But there are no texts asserting this, which are not capable of another sense, and of being interpreted in a different manner. 6. In this way Jesus Christ is no example to us; for we are not taught to descend into some inferior class of being, but to act modestly and meekly in our present station. 7. Upon this supposition, there would have been nothing extraordinary in our Saviour's resurrection and ascension. 8. If Jesus Christ was the creator, under God, of all things visible and invisible, we cannot explain, with any degree of consistency, those passages, in which he is said to be highly exalted, as a reward for his humility and obedience upon earth.

In

In the third discourse, the author states and examines the opinion, which is sometimes called the doctrine of the Nazareans or the Unitarians. These believe that there is one God alone, even the Father, possessed of all perfections, the creator of all things, who spake to the patriarchs in the early ages of the world, to the people of Israel by Moses and other prophets, and in these later ages, to all mankind by Jesus Christ.

For the farther illustration of this point, the author produces those texts of Scripture which seem to establish the doctrine of divine unity; secondly, those which relate to the person of Jesus Christ; and thirdly, those which relate to the Holy Spirit.

According to this hypothesis, Jesus Christ is the Son of God, as he was born of a virgin by the immediate and extraordinary interposition of the divine power; and as he had the spirit without measure, or the Father's fullness poured out upon him. He was afterwards declared to be the Son of God by his resurrection. He is the first-begotten from the dead, who died and rose again, and now lives for ever. He is exalted to God's right hand, being invested with authority and dominion over all flesh, and constituted judge of the world, by whom God will pass sentence upon all mankind. In these respects, as well as in others, he has the pre-eminence.

By the Spirit or Holy Ghost, the persons in this way of thinking do not understand a distinct intelligent agent, or being of great power and capacity. But with them the Spirit of God is God himself, or the power of God, or a gift, or divine influence and manifestation.

This scheme our author thinks, the plainest and simplest of all. He therefore employs the fourth and last discourse in explaining the expressions of the apostle in the text, in conformity to these principles. By 'the form of God,' he understands our Saviour's wonderful power and knowledge. The apostle says, 'he thought it not robbery to be equal with God.' That is, says this writer, he did not earnestly covet divine honour from men, or seek to be equal, or like to God. He professed only to teach and act as he had received from the Father; he declined all power and authority; he enjoined silence to some on whom he had wrought great cures; he affected no independence, but referred all to God.

'He made himself of no reputation:' literally 'he emptied himself.' That is, 'he did not exert the divine power residing in him for security to himself, for plentiful accommodations and honour; but he lived in humble circumstances, and was exposed to the reproaches and ill usage of the world.' He

took the form of a servant.' He did not place himself in servitude to any. But in the whole course of his ministry he acted as one that serves, and displayed several remarkable instances of humility and condescension.—In this manner the author explains the remaining part of the text, and concludes with an exhortation to moderation, candour, and charity; to a due sense of the divine attributes and perfections; to a love and reverence for the divine author of our religion; and a conduct suitable to his excellent precepts and example.

*Letters from Monf. Racine, the elder, to his Son, Monf. Racine, the younger, when a Youth. Small 8vo. 2s. Wilkins.*

**P**REviously to an account of this little volume, we cannot avoid remarking the peculiar excellence of familiar letters, in delineating the characters of those by whom they are written. Every other species of literary composition is calculated to display the genius, but this alone lays open the heart, and introduces us to the most intimate knowledge of the man. While therefore we admire the poetical talents of Racine, in his pathetic and elegant tragedies, we view with no less pleasure his amiable private virtues in the Letters now under consideration. In all the tender relations of domestic life, he appears to the greatest advantage; and the same sensibility of mind, as well as justness of sentiment, are also evident in his more extended intercourse with Society. In a word, we may say of him, as Tacitus said of his father-in-law Agricola,—A great man we knew him to be, and are glad to find him a good man.

The following Letter contains Monf. Racine's advice to his son, relative to the reading of plays and romances.

'You seem by your letter to envy mad. C. because she has read more plays and romances than you have. I will give you my sentiments on that head, with the sincerity which it is my duty to use towards you. I am very sorry you lay so much stress on such trifles, which at best should serve only to unbend the mind sometimes, but by no means to engross so much of the heart as I fear they do of yours: you are employed in serious studies, which ought to engage your whole attention; and while thus employed, and we pay masters to instruct you, you should carefully avoid whatever tends to dissipate the mind, and turn you from those studies. Not only conscience and religion oblige you to this conduct, but you should have consideration and respect enough for me, to conform a little to my sentiments, while you are of an age in which you ought to be directed. I do not say that you should not sometimes, by way of amusement, read such things; and you see I have myself  
many



many French books very capable of diverting you ; but I should be much afflicted if this kind of reading should create in you a disgust for more useful learning, especially for books of piety and morality, which fort you never mention, and I fear have no taste for ; though you know that I take more delight in them than in any other reading, and you may believe me, though you should talk ever so well of plays and romances, it will be of little use towards your advancement in life, neither will that kind of knowledge make you much esteemed. I shall omit saying more on this head till I see you. You will always give me pleasure when you write freely, and do not conceal any thing from me. You must conclude I do not mean to vex you, nor have any other view than to contribute to your having a solid understanding, and sentiments that I need not be ashamed of when you come into the world. I assure you that next to my own salvation, your welfare is what I am most solicitous about, Look not on what I say as a reprimand, but as the advice of a father who tenderly loves you, and seeks to give you every proof of his affection. Write to me as often as you can, and pray remember me to your mother and sisters. Here is no news, except that the king has the gout almost continually.

The subsequent Letter is also worthy of being extracted for the salutary advice it affords.

‘ It is now time we set out for our journey to Picardie, and as it will be a fortnight before I shall see you again, and as I have you always in my thoughts, I cannot avoid repeating a few things which I think very important for your conduct.

‘ The first is to be very circumspect in your conduct and conversation, and to avoid by all means the reputation of a great talker, which is the worst character a young man can have in the country to which you are going ; the next thing is to pay great deference to the advice of monsi. and madame Vigan, who, I am persuaded, love you as well as if you were their own. Do not neglect your studies. Cultivate your memory on all occasions ; for it has great need of being exercised ; and at my return I shall require an account of all you have read, particularly the History of France, of which I shall expect to see an abstract. You know what I have said about plays and operas ; they will be played at Marli, but it is of the utmost consequence both to you and myself that you should not be seen there, and the more so, as you are at Versailles at present to attend your studies, and not those kind of amusements. The king and all the court know my scruples on that head, and they would have but a bad opinion of you, if, at your age, you paid so little regard to me and my sentiments. Above all things I recommend it to you to think of your salvation, and not to lose that veneration I have observed you to have for religion. The greatest misfortune that could happen to me in this world would be to see you an infidel or free thinker, and

indifferent to the things of God and religion. I hope you will receive this admonition with the same kindness and good-will with which it is given. Adieu, my dear son; write to me often.'

Amongst the advices which Monf. Racine strongly recommends to his son, he neglects not to dissuade him from spending too much time in the reading of the French poets, as it would take off his attention from more serious studies. This may seem surprising, considering that Monf. Racine himself had been so eminent a dramatic writer: but his mind had now taken a remarkable bias to religious sentiments, and these he takes the opportunity of inculcating in almost every Letter to his son.

The good taste of Monf. Racine with regard to epistolary writing, is evident from the following Letter.

'I can assure you, monf. d'Tercy lets no opportunity escape of doing you good offices, as he has a great esteem for the ambassador, so he entirely relies on the accounts he sends of you. I read your last letter to him, as well as to mareschal Noailles; they were perfectly astonished at the description you give of the indefatigable pains and application of the ambassador. I have lately read over again, for, I suppose, the hundredth time, the Epistles of Cicero to his friends; and I wish at your leisure hours you would read some of them to the ambassador; I am certain they would please him, as, without flattery, I know none who has better caught his manner of writing than he has, whether seriously on great affairs, or jesting agreeably on trifles; in this last kind I think Voiture much beneath either of them. Read the Epistle ad Trebatium, ad Marium, ad Papyrium Poetum, and others which I will point out to you, whenever you will read; also that from Cælius to Cicero, and you will be astonished to see a man equally gay and eloquent as Cicero. But to form a right judgment, you should familiarize yourself to these letters, by a thorough knowledge of the history of those times, in which Plutarch's Lives will assist you. I advise you to purchase the Epistles by Grevius, in Holland, octavo; they are excellent reading for a man who is to write letters, whether on business or on less serious subjects.'

The subsequent Letter affords a proof that two of the most eminent French poets had also their rank amongst the best men in the nation.

'It was a very agreeable surprise to me to see monf. Bonnac enter my closet; but my joy was greatly abated, when I found he was determined not to sleep with us; absolutely refusing the room my wife had prepared for him, we renewed our solicitations the next day, and went so far as to threaten we would send you word to lodge at an inn at the Hague; but he excused himself by saying, it was so far from monf. d'Tercy's, whom

whom he was obliged to attend whenever he came to Paris. I was forced to acquiesce, and you may be sure your mother was at least as much disappointed as myself. You know her grateful temper, and how good a heart she has; there is scarce a thing she would not do to shew monf. Bonnac how sensible she is of the favors he confers on you. We are both charmed with monf. Bonnac's kind and polite behaviour, and should be everjoyed should you copy his manner, till you resemble him. He gives us great hopes of you, and you are happy in having so kind a friend, if he does not flatter us, but gives a true account of you. We have great reason to give thanks to God on your account, and to hope you will be a great comfort to us. He tells us you love employment, and that your chief amusements are reading and walking, but especially the conversation of the ambassador, which you have reason to prefer to all the pleasures in the world, at least I always found it superior, and not only I but all here who are celebrated for the best taste and brightest understandings.

'I did not dare ask monf. Bonnac whether you sometimes thought about religion, I was afraid the answer might not be as I could wish; but I am willing to flatter myself that as you are desirous of being an honest man, you will perceive you cannot be so without rendering to God the things that are God's. You know religion; I may even say, you know how good and pleasant a thing it is, therefore it is not possible but you should love it. Forgive me if I enlarge a little on this subject sometimes; you know how much I have it at heart, and, I can assure you, the farther I advance in life, the more I find there is nothing in this world so valuable as a conscience void of offence towards God and towards man, and to look up to God as a kind father, who will not fail us when we have need. Monf. Despreaux, whom you are so fond of, is more than ever of these sentiments since he wrote on the love of God; and I assure you, he is fully persuaded himself of the great truths which he is desirous of teaching to others. You sometimes think my letters too short; but I much fear you will think this too long. Adieu.'

It is much to the honour both of Racine and M. Despreaux, that though rivals in the favour of the Muses, there seems to have subsisted the warmest friendship between them; and though each of them was an enemy to personal satire, they appear, from a passage in the following Letter, to have been no strangers to that innocent railery which may be rendered of advantage amongst companions.

'Monf. Bonnac will inform you of our health; for he has done us the honor to call on us often, and even sometimes dine in our little family way; he can tell you that we are all very cheerful, except your sister, who is always troubled with the head-ach, which I fear is caused by her great uneasiness about

what state she had best fix in. I pity her greatly, and do my utmost to amuse her; but we live so retired, that there is but little amusement with us; though she professes to have no desire to know more of the world; she takes no pleasure in any thing but reading, and seems quite indifferent to every thing else. The time for Nancy to be professed draws near, and she waits impatiently for it. Babet testifies the like impatience, but we have determined to let her stay but one year at the convent, and then take her home, that we may be the better judge of the reality of her sentiments. Fanny is desirous of going to her sister Nancy, and talks of nothing else; the little one does not seem so willing to leave us, she appears to have a great relish for the world, has a great deal of wit, and talks in a manner that would surprise you; and has a turn for raillery, for which I often chide her. I intend next year to put your brother to *Monf. Rollin*, to whom the archbishop has intrusted the care of young *monf. Noailles*. *Monf. Rollin* has taken a lodging in the *College d'Laon*, *Pays d'Latin*, our neighbour, would have put his son, but they thought the little boy too stupid, which greatly offended the father.

'All our brethren, the gentlemen in ordinary to the king, ask after you frequently, as do several officers of the guards, only *monf. B*— seems shy, whether from dislike or timidity, I cannot tell.

'*Monf. Bonnac* will tell you what friendship *monf. Despreaux* expresses for you. He is as happy as a king in his solitude at *Auteuil*, or rather, as I call it, his hotel; for there is not a day passes but there are some new guests, and often such as are total strangers to each other; he is happy that he can thus accommodate himself to all the world; for my part, I should have sold the house long e'er this.

'Now for academic news. Poor *monf. Boyer* is dead, aged eighty-three or eighty-four; it is said he made more than twenty thousand verses in his life-time; I suppose he might, for he did little else; so that was it the custom to burn the dead, as among the Romans, he wanted no other pile than his own works, which would have made a great fire. Poor man, he died like a very good christian; and I must here do justice to poor *Chamalai*, who, I am informed, died very penitent, renounced the play-house, and repented of her past life, but was much afraid of death. This, *monf. Despreaux* tells me, he had from the curate of *Auteuil*, who assisted at her death; for she died there.

'I believe *monf. l'abbé Genest*, will be chosen in *monfieur Boyer's* room; if he has not made so many verses, at least he has made much better.

'I believe I shall not go to *Compeigne*, having seen armies and encampments enough in my time not to be tempted to see this. I shall keep myself for the journey to *Fountainbleau*, and remain at rest in my own family, where I am better pleased

to be than I ever was. Monf. Torcy appears very well difpofed to ferve you, and I am perfuaded will foon give you a proof of it. Monf. d'Noailles will alfo be pleafed with any opportunity of doing you fervice, and, you may fuppose, I fhall not be negligent in pointing out any that may offer; having nothing to induce me to ftay at court, but my defire to fee you placed in a fituation to provide for yourfelf without my affiftance. Your mother tells me ſhe has ſeen the letter your ſiſter has wrote to you, and that ſhe there talks to you about religion; poor girl, you may be ſure ſhe has done her beſt.

Monf. Bonnac will take the trouble of bringing you thirty new louis d'ors, worth 420 livres. I would have ſent you forty, as he gives us ſo great an idea of your œconomy, but your mother thought thirty enough. We intend giving 4,000 livres with your ſiſter, who is to be a nun, beſides a penſion of 200; ſhe does not yet know our intention, nor does the convent. I conſulted the archbiſhop de Sens, who ſays it is very handſome, and affures me they will be very well pleafed with it; nay, that had I deſigned to have given more, he ſhould have oppoſed it.

My health is, thank God, very good, but the violent heats make me very faint, and I feel the time draw near when I ſhould think of retiring; but I preached ſo much in my laſt, that I fear to begin in this, and I fancy you would be glad I ſhould conclude with telling you I am very well pleafed with you, and have only to recommend to you to do your utmoſt to pleaſe the ambaffador, and to aſſiſt him in his great work; and I ſhall place to my own account, all the attentions you pay to him, and I wiſh you to have the ſame regard for him as for me, in which there will be this difference, that with him you will learn things a thouſand times more to your profit and advantage than you can with me.

I find you have one quality I muſt approve, which is, when any except myſelf banter you on your little foibles, that you underſtand railleury, and can attack them again; but it is not enough to answer with ſpirit, but we ſhould profit by their railleury, and amend what is amiſs. If I was to give you my own example, it was happy for me that I ſpent my youth among men that ſpoke their minds freely, and did not ſpare each other's faults, and I always took care to correct thoſe they told me of, which indeed were many, and ſuch as would have rendered me very unfit for the commerce of the world.

I forgot to tell you, that I am apprehenſive that you will become too great a purchaſer of books; for, beſides that, a multitude conſeſes; it induces one to ramble from one ſtudy to another, which is often very uſeleſs, and grows into a habit of being tempted to divide the attention. I remember a paſſage in Cicero often quoted to me, by monf. Nicole, to deter me from the fancy of buying many books, "*Non eſſe emacem, vccigal eſt*," it is a good revenue not to love to purchaſe; the word *emacem* is particularly fine, and carries much force with it.

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'I suppose you will stretch your eye-lids when you see the king of England for the first time; for I know how much your curiosity and attention are excited by celebrated people, and I shall expect you send me a particular account of what you have seen.'

From a subsequent Letter in this collection, we find that young Racine had been much noticed by the king of England, probably Charles the Second; and from the passage alluded to, we cannot help regretting that we have not an account of this interview.

'I am much charmed with the kind reception you had from the king of England, and much obliged to the ambassador who was the occasion of it, and likewise for his sending an account of it to the king. Mons. d'Torcy has promised me to embrace this opportunity of speaking in your behalf. Mons. Despreaux is highly pleased with the account you give of the king of England.'

Subjoined to the Letters of mons. Racine to his son, is a short account of Port Royal, extracted from his own abridgement, with a few other letters. One of these is addressed to madame de Maintenon, relative to the coolness contracted towards him by Louis XIV. and which was supposed to accelerate his death. In the scene of domestic life, the Letters of mons. Racine display his character in a light the most amiable and praiseworthy. They are in general distinguished by fervent piety, the most tender affection for his family, and a warm attachment to his friends. Convinced of the important truths of religion, he discovers a perpetual anxiety to recommend them to the attention of his son. That his sentiments on this subject were the genuine dictates of his heart, nothing can afford a stronger proof than their having been maintained not only towards the close of his life, and when he had lost the favour of his sovereign, but when he basked in the sunshine of a magnificent court, and flourished in reputation as a poet. We may add that the Letters of mons. Racine form a striking contrast to those of a celebrated nobleman, written under similar circumstances. They are opposite in every thing but in politeness and literary taste.

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*Letters to Dr. Horsley. Part II. Containing farther Evidence that the Primitive Christian Church was Unitarian. By Joseph Priestley, LL. D. F. R. S. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Johnson.*

WE cannot, on this occasion, entertain our readers to more advantage, than by giving them the following clear and comprehensive view of the different opinions, maintained by Dr. Horsley and Dr. Priestley, in the present controversy, as they are stated by the latter.

'1. Dr.

1. Dr. Horsley insists upon it, that the faith of the primitive christian church must have been trinitarian, because that doctrine appears in the writings of Barnabas and Ignatius. I say that, admitting these works to be genuine in the main, they bear evident marks of interpolation with respect to this very subject, and therefore the conclusion is not just.

2. Dr. Horsley says, that those who are called Ebionites, did not exist in the age of the apostles, and also that, though they believed the simple humanity of Christ, they probably held some mysterious exaltation of his nature after his ascension, which made him the object of prayer to them. I say the Ebionites certainly existed in the time of the apostles, and that this notion of their holding such an exaltation of his nature, as to make him the object of prayer, is highly improbable.

3. Dr. Horsley says, that those who are called Nazarenes by the early christian writers, believed the divinity of Christ, that they did not exist till after the time of Adrian, and had their name from the place where they settled in the North of Galilee, after they were then driven from Jerusalem. I maintain that these Nazarenes no more believed the divinity of Christ than the Ebionites, and that, together with them, they were supposed, by the christian fathers, to have existed in the time of the apostles.

4. Dr. Horsley maintains, that there was a church of orthodox Jewish christians at Jerusalem, after the time of Adrian; for that the body of Jewish christians, who had before observed the law of Moses, abandoned their ceremonies after the destruction of the place, in order to obtain the privileges of the *Ælian* colony, settled there by Adrian. Origen, who asserts that the Jewish christians had not abandoned the laws and customs of their ancestors, Dr. Horsley says must have known the contrary, and therefore asserted a wilful falsehood. I say that Adrian expelled all the Jews, whether christians or not, from Jerusalem; that the christian church, afterwards settled at Jerusalem, consisted wholly of Gentile converts, and that the testimony of Origen, agreeing with this, is highly worthy of credit.

5. Dr. Horsley maintains, that though he finds no unitarians in the apostolic age, a censure was intended for them by the apostle John, in the phrase, Christ came in the flesh. I assert, that the unitarians did exist in great numbers in the time of John, but that he did not censure them at all; and that the phrase, Christ came in the flesh, relates to the Gnostics only.

6. Dr.

6. Dr. Horsley asserts, that the unitarians, from the time that they made their appearance, were considered as heretics by the orthodox christians, and not admitted to communion with them, and particularly that they were included by Justin Martyr among those heretics whom he charges with blasphemy. I assert, that in Justin's time, and much later, the unitarians were not deemed heretics at all, that Justin did not even allude to unitarians in either of his two accounts of heretics in general, and that the blasphemy he speaks of respected the Gnostics only.

7. Though Tertullian says the *idiotæ*, who were the greater part of christians, were unitarians, and shocked at the doctrine of the trinity, Dr. Horsley asserts that he only meant to include a small number of them in that class, and those so ignorant and stupid as to deserve to be called ideots. I maintain, that by *idiotæ* he only meant unlearned persons, or persons in private life; and I also maintain, that even in Origen's time, and long after, a great part of these christians were unitarians, and in communion with the catholic church; that the term *heresy* was long used as synonymous to *Gnosticism*, and that the original use of the term frequently occurs, even after the unitarians were deemed to be heretics.

8. Dr. Horsley maintains, that by the Jews who held the simple humanity of Christ, Athanasius meant the unbelieving Jews only, and that the Gentiles who were by them converted to that belief, were unbelieving Gentiles. I say the Jews were christian Jews, and their converts christian Gentiles.

9. Dr. Horsley maintains that the Jews, in our Saviour's time, believed in the doctrine of the trinity, that they expected the second person in the trinity as their Messiah, and that they changed their opinion concerning him when the christians applied it to Christ. I say that the Jews were always unitarians, that they expected only a man for their Messiah, and that they never changed their opinion on that subject.

10. Dr. Horsley says, that the apostles considered Christ as being God from the time that they considered him as the Messiah. I say that they considered him as a mere man, when they received him as the Messiah, and that we find no evidence in their history, or in their writings, that they ever changed that opinion concerning him.

11. Dr. Horsley denies that the orthodox fathers before the council of Nice, held that the logos had been an attribute of the deity, and then assumed a proper personality; and says, that all that they meant by the generation of the son, was the display of his powers in the production of material beings. I assert,



assert, that by this generation, they certainly meant a change of state in the *logos*, viz. from a mere attribute, such as reason is in man, to a proper person, and that in their opinion this was made with a view to the creation of the world.

\* 12. Dr. Horsley can find no difference between this doctrine of the personification of the *logos*, and the peculiar opinions of the Arians. I assert, that they were two schemes directly opposed to each other, and so clearly defined, as never to have been confounded or mistaken.

\* 13. Dr. Horsley asserts, that it seems to have been the opinion of all the fathers, and is likewise agreeable to the scriptures, that the second person in the trinity had its origin from the first person contemplating his own perfections. I challenge him to produce any authority whatever, ancient or modern, for that opinion.

\* 14. Dr. Horsley maintains that, though the three persons in the trinity have each of them all the perfections of deity, the Father is the fountain of the divinity, and has some unknown pre-eminence. I assert that this pre-eminence is inconsistent with the proper equality, and that if they be properly equal, they must necessarily be three gods as well as three persons.

\* 15. Dr. Horsley says, that prayer for succour in external prosecution, seems with particular propriety to be addressed to the Son. I say that this is altogether a distinction of his own, and has no countenance in scripture precept or example, nor, indeed, in those of the primitive church.

\* 16. Dr. Horsley maintains; that the unitarians do not even pretend that the general tenor of scripture is in their favour, that they cannot produce any text that plainly contains their doctrine, but that they derive it wholly from particular passages, to which they give a figurative interpretation. Whereas I maintain that the unitarians have always appealed to the general tenor of scripture, and the plain language of it; and on the contrary, that the trinitarians cannot find their doctrine either in the general tenor, or in any clear texts of scripture, but that they deduce it from particular expressions and circumstances, which, when rightly explained, do by no means authorise their conclusions.

\* 17. Dr. Horsley says, that the difference between the unitarians and the Mahometans is so small, and such advances were made towards the Mahometans by the unitarians of the last age, that there is good ground to think, that the unitarians will soon acknowledge the divine mission of Mahomet. He also represents christianity on the principles of unitarianism, as inferior to deism, and when joined with materialism,

as highly favourable to atheism. Such charges as these, I say, can proceed from nothing but ignorance and malevolence, and do not deserve a serious refutation.

‘These are all the articles of importance on which we hold different opinions, every thing else being of less moment, and subordinate to these.’

Dr. Priestley, in his former Letters to Dr. Horsley, discussed the points concerning which he differed from his antagonist, in an argumentative and respectful manner; but Dr. Horsley having assumed a tone of authority, and mixed his arguments with what he calls ‘the high seasoning of controversy,’ our author, in the present publication, has taken the liberty to treat him with more freedom. And indeed has defended himself against the archdeacon and his ‘great and good ally,’ with admirable dexterity and success.

Though this reply is extended to 220 pages, the author informs us, that it would have been much longer, if he had not been preparing for the press a larger ‘History of the State of Opinions concerning Christ in the primitive Times.’ In that work we are therefore led to expect much additional evidence for every article in this controversy, as well as a variety of other matter relating to the subject, which will throw light on the opinions and turn of thinking in early times.

*Observations on the Manufactures, Trade, and present State of Ireland. By John Lord Sheffield. Part the First. 8vo. 2s. Debrett.*

THE judicious Observations with which lord Sheffield has formerly presented the public, relative to the trade between the British colonies and America, are sufficiently well known; and we are glad to find that his lordship is now exerting his political abilities on another subject of the highest importance to the nation. From his connections both with Britain and Ireland, we consider him as happily situated for viewing, and examining with impartiality, the interests of the two countries. His lordship professes to be actuated by this disposition in the present enquiry; nor indeed, from the manner in which he prosecutes the subject, can we entertain the smallest doubt respecting the sincerity of his declaration.

Our author observes, that jealousies in trade between England, Scotland, and Ireland, will ever occur; but that such jealousies, in some respects, stimulate useful competition, and in the end, improve manufactures, and promote trade. Ireland at present, he confesses, aims at more than her capital can support, or in which it is impossible to succeed. The idea

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of 'Protecting Duties,' however, which had been urged by the ignorant zeal of some of the people, is a measure by no means agreeable to a great proportion of the inhabitants, and has been rejected, in the Irish parliament, by a great majority. Lord Sheffield justly observes, that 'a war of protecting duties and bounties would answer to neither country; it would be extremely prejudicial to both; it would be ruinous to Ireland.'

Prohibiting duties, lord Sheffield urges, might not only bring real evils on Ireland, but would fail of answering the purpose intended. They encourage contraband trade; and no laws could prevent the smuggling of British manufactures into Ireland. It is a farther remark, that those who examine with a jealous eye, the advantages resulting to Great Britain from her supplying Ireland with certain articles, should observe the prodigious quantity of linen with which Ireland supplies Great Britain. We are informed that the value of this article, in the year ending the 25th of March, 1782, exceeded all the imports into Ireland of the growth, produce, and manufactures of Great Britain. It amounted to 24,692,072 yards, value 1,646,138l. 2s. 8d. Irish money; besides linen yarn, to the amount of 169,126l. 10s. In the same year, all the imports into Ireland, of the produce and manufacture of Great Britain, amounted to 1,486,317l. 2s. 4d.

Lord Sheffield also observes, that Ireland does not grow a sufficient quantity of wool of a proper sort, if she should manufacture the whole of it, to supply her own consumption of woollens; and that she could not get the same articles cheaper from any other country than from Great Britain. At the same time, a great proportion of the linens which Great Britain takes from Ireland might be got cheaper from the north of Europe: and Ireland should remember that, of all her exports in the same year, viz. 1782, Britain alone took 2,699,825l. 13s. 8½d.

After a statement of Irish exports and imports during a series of years, lord Sheffield argues in a manner so candid and impartial, as particularly merits the attention of those who affect to be the truest friends of Ireland.

'But some of the violent friends of Ireland say, we will have non-importation agreements, protecting duties, prohibitions, &c. If you don't take our linens, we will not only refuse British, but also foreign and colonial commodities from Great Britain, and the two last amount to near 800,000l. yearly.

'It will be answered, that Great Britain gives to the principal manufacture of Ireland every advantage in every part of her

her dominions, and may most reasonably expect that her own principal manufacture should, in return, have equal advantages in Ireland, which they have not. The linens Great Britain takes from Ireland are five times the value of the woollens taken from Britain. Ireland takes nothing from her that she can get cheaper or better elsewhere, except the commodities of the British West Indies; and, in return, she has an advantage in her share of the monopoly of the West-India markets, and she has no pretension to trade with the plantations on any other principle. Whatever else she takes of colonial or foreign articles, is for her own convenience; and before Ireland cuts off all commercial intercourse with Great Britain, it may be worth her while to consider the proportion of the exports of Ireland taken by Great Britain, as already mentioned: it will appear that her exports to all other parts did not, in the same year, much exceed, in value, the twentieth part of her exports to Britain, and in that part are included the exports to the British plantations, which would be found no small part, but which would be also lost, as such proceedings on the part of Ireland would naturally tend to interrupt all commercial intercourse with the British colonies and empire. Great Britain has found it possible to exist, and to maintain, her commercial affluence against the combinations and interruptions of many principal markets in both continents; but Ireland has not yet made the experiment, how she could exist without the markets of the British dominions: and when Ireland shall be so madly advised, neither fleets nor armies, nor any extraordinary expence, will be necessary, on the part of Great Britain, to convince her she is wrong: hurtful it may be for a time; but in the end, and soon, Great Britain must prevail: Ireland cannot: for it does not appear where she will get what she wants, and that she has credit with other nations to the amount she would require; or where she will dispose of what she has, if she should have no intercourse with Great Britain or the British colonies. It will be found, that it is the intercourse with the British dominions that enables Ireland to trade in any considerable degree.'

This hostile mode of argument however, his lordship very justly condemns; and observes, that under the present enlarged and free system of commerce, there is demand and trade enough in the world to occupy the utmost industry both of Britain and Ireland.

Instead of protecting or prohibitory duties, lord Sheffield expresses an opinion that to lower the British inoperative duties to the Irish, would perhaps be the most advisable expedient. It would leave the trade nearly on its present footing; and it is  
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the interest of the British manufacturers that the duties should be equalised, rather by lowering them here, than by raising them in Ireland.

To this proposal the noble lord doubts not that many of the English woollen manufacturers would object; but, in his opinion, without reason. For he thinks, that if Great Britain should take off the heavy duties on the importation of Irish woollens into Britain, it would not be of the advantage to Ireland that she imagines, nor a material check to the British manufacturers of wool. On the part of England and Scotland, our author maintains, that lowering high duties to the scale of the Irish, while it will remove the arguments, and suppress the clamours of the discontented in Ireland, cannot hurt their own manufactures. He observes that the heavy duties on the importation of Irish manufactures into Great Britain are prohibitory; that they are in general unnecessary; and only serve to irritate and support false notions and prejudices. For while Great Britain can undersell Ireland, even in the home markets of the latter, in almost every manufacture, charged with land-carriage in Britain, freight, duties on landing, and commission; and notwithstanding the bounties given by the Dublin Society, or parliament, Ireland could not sell any quantity of manufactures at British markets, or much more to foreign countries, than she does now. He admits indeed, that she may be able to export, in the course of trade, and to add to cargoes, to a certain extent, some articles which she cannot make cheaper than England, but not in such a quantity as to prejudice the latter.

So far as lord Sheffield has proceeded in this important disquisition, we repeat it as our opinion, that he treats the subject with impartiality. A beneficent reciprocation of commercial privileges between Great Britain and Ireland, is the system of policy which he recommends to both legislatures. But at the same time that he urges the propriety of mutual indulgence in general, he explodes the idea that Ireland has any claim to share with Great Britain either in the benefits of the navigation-act, or the trade of the East-India company; and whatever opinion the intemperate friends of Ireland may entertain on this subject, lord Sheffield's arguments are too strong to admit of being called in question by candid and impartial reasoners.—As we find that a Second Part of these Observations will soon be published, we wish it may appear in time to prove of any effect in the settlement of the commercial regulations between Great Britain and Ireland. For lord Sheffield's disquisitions being conducted with judgment, and

supported by information of good authority, his sentiments have a title to consideration, on a subject which so much concerns the most essential interests of both countries.

*An Account of the Musical Performances in Westminster Abbey, and the Pantheon, May 16th, 27th, 29th; and June the 3d and 5th, 1784. In Commemoration of Handel. By Charles Burney, Mus. D. F. R. S. 4to. 1l. 1s. in Boards. Payne, and Robinson.*

THAT an event so singular and unparalleled in the annals of music, as that which is the subject of this publication, should not be left to the casual and imperfect records of general fame, but should find its appropriated and adequate historian, must surely have been the wish, not only of all those who heard, but, still more, perhaps, of those who did not hear, the performances here celebrated. Concurring heartily in this wish ourselves, we confess that we were not a little gratified, when we were informed that the execution of this task had fallen into the hands of a person so well qualified to do it justice, by such a union of requisites as is not, we think, very commonly to be found—by his unquestionable skill and taste in the art itself,—his liberal and unprejudiced judgment,—and his well-known abilities as a writer, which are such as have enabled him not barely to record facts, or deliver opinions, but, also, to convey the impressions of his own musical sensibility to his readers—*‘FARI QUÆ SENTIAT.’*—Among these different qualifications, we doubt whether any be a greater rarity in the musical world than the absence of prejudice. Of all the subjects of dispute on which men have chosen to exercise their ingenuity, and heat their zeal, none appears more evidently unreasonable and useless, than that question which, from time immemorial, has been so great a favourite with them—Whether that which is *old*, or that which is *new*, deserves the preference?—Hence, in literature, that well-known and endless controversy concerning the *ancients*, and the *moderns*: and hence, the two great *sectæ* into which the musical world is at present generally divided, of the worshippers of the *old*, and the worshippers of the *new*, music. And, indeed, it must be confessed that, as the love of controversy appears, by long experience, to be inherent in mankind, and the source of one of their most natural and necessary pleasures, they have certainly done wisely to chuse such subjects of controversy as expose them to no risk of losing their amusement by decision.—We admire the logic of exclusive taste. ‘The compositions of Corelli, Geminiani, and Handel,’

Handel,' say the partisans of what is called the *old Music*\*, 'are admirable: therefore, those of Abel, Boccherini, and Haydn, being different from them, must be good for nothing.'—It is just the reverse, say the *modernists*—the quartetts of Haydn are delicious: a concerto of Corelli is a very different thing, and therefore intolerable.' For our own parts, we confess ourselves so simple as not to be able to see, why a man who relishes *two* good things, may not be said to have at least as much taste as he who relishes but *one*. We respect the *Concert of Ancient Music*; and heartily approve *one half* of its purpose. To rescue from disuse and oblivion many admirable composers whose works are there—and perhaps there only—to be heard in such perfection, was undoubtedly a rational and laudable object. We venture, however, to submit it to the unprejudiced part of our musical readers, whether the title by which concerts of this kind are commonly distinguished, be not somewhat *elliptical*; whether, to the words in which their purpose is generally expressed, i. e. '*for the preservation of ancient music*,' the spirit and tendency of the institution will not justify our adding, to complete the sense,—'*and for the exclusion and discouragement of the modern*.'—

'Indignor, quidquam reprehendi, non quia *crasse Compositum, illepidum* putetur, sed *QUIA NUPER.*' HOR.

With respect to Dr. Barney, we think it much to the credit, both of his taste and his understanding, that his musical *index expurgatorius* is not of that bigotted and intolerant kind which would expunge all authors, or all styles, but one. It is with pleasure that we have observed him, both as musical journalist, and musical historian, always ready to assign to every composer who attained to excellence, in any age, or style, from JOSEPH † to HAYDN, his just portion of *proper* and *discriminative* praise: '*Nullius addictus jurare in verba magistri.*'—And thus, in the agreeable and interesting work before us, he appears to us to have done ample justice to the sublime and comprehensive genius of HANDEL; as well as to the performance itself, and to the skill, judgment, and zeal

\* It seems decided, that to be denominated *ancient*, or *good*, (for the words are synonymous,) a composition must be at least *twenty years old*. A very young kind of antiquity. But—

'—qui decessit minor uno mense, vel anno

Inter quos referendus erit?—*vetereſque* poetas,

An quos et præsens et postera respuat ætas?' HOR.

The writer of this article remembers a time, not very distant, when *Pergolesi*, who is now adopted as an *Ancient*, and whose works are become of age to merit *preservation*, was regarded with a jealous eye by the *Handelomania*s, as one of the chief fountains of *modern degeneracy and corruption*.

† See *Hist. of Music*, vol. ii. p. 485, &c.—Particularly, p. 507—509.

of those who selected the Music, arranged the band, and regulated so successfully the complicated movements of this wonderful and gigantic orchestra. We perfectly agree with Dr. Burney, that 'however his mind may be impressed with a reverence for HANDEL, by an early and long acquaintance with his person and works, yet, as it amounts not to bigotry, or the preclusion of all respect or admiration of excellence in others, wherever he can find it, *his* narrative will be less likely to excite suspicions of improbability, or hyperbole, in such readers as were not so fortunate as to participate of the surprise and rapture of all that were present at these magnificent performances, and are able to judge of the reality of the sensations described.' [*Preface*, p. xv.]

In this sensible and well-written *Preface*, the author has given 'a Chronological List of the most remarkable Musical Masters upon record,' in order to shew, that 'from the time that the present system of harmony was invented, to this period, no well-authenticated instance could, he believes, be produced, of *five hundred* performers, vocal and instrumental, being consolidated into one body, and giving such indisputable proofs of talents and discipline, as on the late occasion.' We cannot help pointing out in this part of the *Preface*, (p. viii.) a mistake which, we think, inverts the author's meaning. In the conclusion of the first paragraph,—('Without leaving the least doubt of its *superiority*.'—) the word '*superiority*' should surely have been '*inferiority*;'—or, for '*doubt*,' we should read '*suspicion*.'—

The *Preface* is followed by a *Sketch of the Life of HANDEL*, which, we doubt not, will furnish a very acceptable entertainment to every reader who is, in any degree, interested in the subject. It contains several particulars of his life not hitherto known; rectifies some errors of his former biographer\*, and is enlivened with many little anecdotes, and strokes of character, such as, we think, cannot fail to divert every reader who is not of that solemn class,—some of which it is the misfortune of every writer to have,—'whose visages

'Do cream and mantle like a standing pool.'

The limits to which we are confined make us fearful of indulging ourselves in quotation: but we cannot help selecting, as a specimen, the following little story.

'Handel was very fond of Mrs. Cibber, whose voice and manners had softened his severity for her want of musical knowledge. At her house, of a Sunday evening, he used to meet Quin, who

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\* The sensible and candid author of the *Memoirs*, &c. published in 1760.



in spite of native roughness, was very fond of music. Yet the first time Mrs. Cibber prevailed on HANDEL to sit down to the harpsichord, while he was present, on which occasion I remember the great musician played the overture in *Siroe*, and delighted us all with the marvellous neatness with which he played the jig, at the end of it;—Quin, after HANDEL was gone, being asked by Mrs. Cibber, whether he did not think Mr. HANDEL had a charming hand? replied,—“*a hand*, Madam! you mistake, it's a foot;”—“*poh! poh!* says she, has he not a fine finger?”—“*Toes*, by G—madam!”—Indeed, his hand was then so fat, that the knuckles, which usually appear convex, were like those of a child, dented or dimpled in, so as to be rendered concave; however, his touch was so smooth, and the tone of the instrument so much cherished, that his fingers seemed to grow to the keys. They were so curved and compact, when he played, that no motion, and scarcely the fingers themselves, could be discovered.’

To the Sketch of Handel's Life, is added a *character of him as a composer*, the justness of which, we think, will not be disputed by any, except, on the one hand, his idolatrous worshippers, who are to be satisfied with nothing less than *exclusive* praise;—and, on the other, perhaps, a few fastidious *amateurs*, whose feeble and sickly delicacy feels no other effect from the sublimest combinations of choral harmony than that of being stunned. We have, indeed, frequently heard it objected to the choruses of HANDEL, that they are *noisy*. Undoubtedly, when he was writing them, he did not conceive himself to be ‘penning a whisper.’ Had Mr. Bates resigned his office of conductor, which he so ably discharged, to one of these tender-eared critics, (who always remind us of Ben Jonson's *Morest*,) every instrument in the orchestra would, no doubt, have had its tone muffled by a *sordine*, and every finger his jaws imprisoned, like those of the ancient flute-players, by a *maxille*.

In this part of his book, Dr. Burney has made some very sensible observations concerning *originality*, in answer to those who have endeavoured to depreciate the merit of Handel, on account of his not having been the *inventor* of the different *species* of Music for which his name has been celebrated.

The *character* of Handel is followed by a chronological list of his works,—Proposals for printing a complete edition of them,—And some *Addenda* to the Preface and Life.

Through these *Prolegomena* we are led to that which is to be considered as the principal and most interesting part of the work—the *Account of the Musical Performances in Westminster-Abbey, and the Pantheon*, including, by way of introduction, a relation of the origin, progress, and completion of this great

design, and a description of the occasional decorations of the Abbey, the structure of the Throne, and accommodations for the Royal Family, the plan of the Galleries and Orchestra—the extraordinary and *Colossal* instruments constructed, or procured, for the occasion—and whatever else can be supposed to gratify the curiosity of those who were absent, or of posterity.

And here we shall select, as a specimen, the following passage, in which the author's observations on the practice of *beating time*, and his description of the effect resulting from the *precision* and *unity* of this admirable band, appear to us to be excellent.

‘ Foreigners, particularly the French, must be much astonished at so numerous a band, moving in such exact measure, without the assistance of a *Coryphaeus* to beat the time, either with a roll of paper, or a noisy *baton*, or truncheon. Rousseau says, that “the more time is beaten the less it is kept;” and it is certain, that when the measure is broken, the fury of the musical-general, or director, increasing with the disobedience and confusion of his troops, he becomes more violent, and his strokes and gesticulations more ridiculous, in proportion to their disorder.

‘ The celebrated Lulli, whose favour in France, during the last century, was equal to that of HANDAL in England, during the present, may be said to have *beat himself to death*, by intemperate passion in marking the measure to an ill-disciplined band; for in regulating with his cane, the time of a *Te Deum*, which he had composed for the recovery of his royal patron Louis XIV, from a dangerous sickness, in 1686, he wounded his foot by accidentally striking on that instead of the floor, in so violent a manner, that from the contusion occasioned by the blow, a mortification ensued, which cost him his life, at the age of fifty-four!

‘ As this COMMEMORATION is not only the first instance of a band of such magnitude being assembled together, but of *any* band, at all numerous, performing in a similar situation, without the assistance of a *Manu-ductor*, to regulate the measure, the performances in Westminster-abbey may be safely pronounced no less remarkable for the multiplicity of voices and instruments employed, than for accuracy and precision. When all the wheels of that huge machine, the Orchestra, were in motion, the effect resembled clock-work in every thing, but want of feeling and expression.

‘ And, as the power of gravity and attraction in bodies is proportioned to their mass and density, so it seems as if the magnitude of this band had commanded and impelled adhesion and obedience, beyond that of any other of inferior force. The pulsations in every limb, and ramifications of veins and arteries in an animal, could not be more reciprocal, isochronous, and

under the regulation of the heart, than the members of this body of Musicians under that of the Conductor and Leader. The totality of sound seemed to proceed from one voice, and one instrument; and its powers produced, not only new and exquisite sensations in judges and lovers of the art, but were felt by those who never received pleasure from Music before."

While we are on this subject, we cannot refrain from giving another extract, from the *Preface*, which, we think, confirms what was asserted in the beginning of this article—that Dr. Burney has succeeded in conveying not only *facts*, but *impressions*, to his readers.

Indeed, the effects of this amazing band, not only overset all the predictions of ignorance and sarcasm, but the conjectures of theory and experience. By some it was predicted, that an orchestra so numerous could never be *in tune*; but even *tuning*, to so noble an organ, was, for once, grand, and productive of pleasing sensations. By some it was thought that, from their number and distance, they would never play *in time*; which, however, they did most accurately, and without the measure being beat in the usual clumsy manner. By others it was expected that the band would be so *loud*, that whoever heard this performance, would never hear again; however, the sound of these multiplied tones arrived as mild and benign at the ears of the audience, as if it had been produced by a few select performers, in a common concert-room. And, lastly, that from the immense size of the building, no *single voice* had the least chance of being heard by those who had places remote from the orchestra; but, luckily, this was so far from being true, that not a vocal breathing, however feeble by nature, or softened by art, was inaudible in any part of the immense space through which it diffused itself in all directions."

Those readers, of true musical sensibility, who were present, will feel the truth of this description. They will, we believe, thank Dr. Burney for thus bringing back to their ears *such* musical sounds as they had never heard before, and in all probability,—till they hear them in the same place, will never hear again:—sounds, which had all that distant and floating sweetness peculiar to the reverberations of lofty space, without any degree of the confusion and indistinctness which generally attend them. The author has elsewhere remarked—"the happy construction of Westminster-abbey for cherishing and preserving musical tones, by a gentle augmentation, without echo or repetition."

Dr. Burney's remarks on the performances of each day, we cannot more justly characterise, than in the very words

which he has made use of in his Preface, to announce his own design.

‘ Though I reserve the critical examination of the entire works of HANDEL for the last volume of my History, yet, as indiscriminate praise is little better than censure, I shall specify such beauties of composition and effect as I felt most forcibly in attending the performance of each day, and for which, by a careful perusal of the score, I have since been enabled to assign reasons.’

What the author here professes to do, we think he has done. His praise, is not the praise of superficial knowledge, or blind attachment. It is not of that indiscriminate and *wholesale* sort, which by saying every thing says nothing; which it is in every man’s power to give, and which no man who has any just regard for his own fame, would ever wish to receive.—Nor is it the cold praise of distant *recollection*; but, evidently, the warm and genuine impression of the moment—produced by feeling, though revised by judgment.

The Remarks may, indeed, be divided into three classes; *learned or technical* criticisms—criticisms of *taste*—and descriptions of *effects*. For instances of the *first*,—which, we doubt not, will be peculiarly acceptable to those readers who are versed in the principles of Harmony—We shall content ourselves with referring to his observations on the Chorus—*Sing ye to the Lord, &c.*—in Israel in Egypt, Note. (b) p. 39. and *Let all the Angels of God*—in the Messiah, p. 82.—On the fugues, of the Overtures in Esther, and Tamerlane, and on the final *Amen* of the Messiah—As examples of the two *other* kinds of remarks, which, of course, are frequently blended, more or less, with each other, we shall, to do justice to the author, and to gratify our readers, produce two passages with which we were particularly pleased.

‘ PART OF THE ANTHEM WHICH WAS PERFORMED IN WESTMINSTER-ABBEY AT THE FUNERAL OF HER SACRED MAJESTY QUEEN CAROLINE, 1737.

‘ *When the ear heard her, then it blessed her; and when the eye saw her, it gave witness of her, Job xxix. 11.*

‘ This elegant, mild, and sorrowing strain, after all the riotous clangor of jubilation in the *Te Deum*, and powerful percussion of drums, and tuneful blasts of trumpets and sacbuts, in the Dead March, was soothing and comforting to the ear. Contrast is the great source of our musical pleasure; for however delighted we may be with *quick, slow, loud, or soft*, for a certain time, variety is so necessary to stimulate attention, that the performance which is in want of the one, is never sure of the other. This charming movement is still so new, that it would  
do

do honour to the taste, as well as knowledge in harmony, of any composer now living. HANDEL had a versatile genius; and if he had continued to write for the Opera, instead of the Church, there was no elegance or refinement which Hæss, Vinci, Pergolesi, and their successors, ever attained, that was out of his reach.

‘ *She delivered the poor that cried, the fatherless, and him that had none to help him, &c.*

‘ The trebles singing alone, and only accompanied in unison, by treble instruments, at the words—“ *kindness, meekness, and comfort were in her tongue,*” had an admirable effect, in point of contrast, with the full harmony of the rest of this charming chorus. Indeed, this *Nenia* contains all the requisites of good Music, in plain counterpoint: as good harmony, melody, rhythm, accent, and expression. The beauties of this strain are of every age and country; no change of fashion can efface them, or prevent their being felt by persons of sensibility.

‘ *Their bodies are buried in peace.* Eccles. xlv. 14.

‘ This admirable fragment of solemn and sorrowful harmony, in the Church style, almost wholly without instruments, is an excellent introduction to the less plaintive strain which follows:

‘ *But their name liveth for evermore.* Ibid.

‘ Which is one of the most singular and agreeable Choruses I know, and was performed with an accuracy, power, and spirit, which neither that, nor, perhaps, any Music of the kind ever received before. Each of the three movements from the *Funeral Anthem*, seemed to excite such lively sensations of grief, as reminded all present of the ravages which death had made among their particular families and friends, and moved many even to tears.”—

The uncommon *effects* of the music upon the audience could not, we think, have been more happily expressed than in the following passage, which closes the account of the *first* day’s performance.

—‘ In justice to the audience, it may be said, that though the frequency of hearing good Music in this capital, of late years, has so far blunted the edge of curiosity and appetite, that the best Operas and Concerts are accompanied with a buzz and murmur of conversation, equal to that of a tumultuous crowd, or the din of high ‘Change; yet now, such a stillness reigned, as, perhaps, never happened before in so large an assembly. The midnight hour was never founded in more perfect tranquillity, than every note of these compositions. I have long been watching the operations of good Music on the sensibility of mankind; but never remember, in any part of Europe, where I attended Musical Exhibitions, in the Church, Theatre, or Chamber, to have observed so much curiosity excited, attention bestowed; or satisfaction glow in the countenances of those  
present,

present, as on this occasion. The effects, indeed, upon many were such as modern times have never before experienced. The *choral power* of harmonical combinations affected some to tears, and fainting; while others were melted and enrapt by the exquisite sweetness of *single sounds*. I had little leisure to contemplate the countenances of those around me; but, when I happened to turn my eyes from the performers, I saw nothing but tears of extacy, and looks of wonder and delight. Nothing, however, discovered the admirable discipline of the band, and unwearied and determined attention of the audience, so much as the *pauses*, which are so frequent in *HANDEL's Music*: for these were so unanimously calculated, and measured, that no platoon, or single cannon, was ever fired with more exact precision or unity of effect, than that with which the whole phalanx of this multitudinous band resumed its work, after all the sudden, and, usually, unlimited cessations of sound, commonly called *pauses*, which, in general, catch loquacity in the fact, but now, at all these unexpected moments, the silence was found as awful and entire, as if none but the tombs of departed mortals had been present."

To the account of the Commemoration is added, a state of the money received and disbursed on this occasion, and an *appendix*, containing an abstract of the laws and resolutions of the *Fund for the Support of decayed Musicians and their Families*—to the benefit of which the sums arising from the Commemoration were chiefly appropriated, and in favour of which, Dr. Burney, with a liberality that does him great honour, readily relinquished all views, however reasonable, of considerable and certain profit to himself from this elegant and splendid publication.

We cannot close this article without taking some notice of the engravings with which this book is decorated. And though all of them deserve praise, we should do injustice to the very singular merit of a young and rising artist\*, if we did not particularly distinguish the two views of the King's Gallery, and of the Orchestra, and the *Frontispiece*. Fame holding the Medal, in the latter, appears to us to be as beautifully imagined as correctly drawn; and, in the *Views*, the ease, animation, and variety of the figures, upon so small a scale, exhibit a union very uncommon, of minute labour with free and masterly design.

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\* Mr. E. Burney, a nephew, as we are informed, of Dr. Burney.

*The Natural Son. A Comedy. Performed at the Theatre Royal, Drury-lane. By Richard Cumberland, Esq. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Dilly.*

THE miser has been said to have picked money from his own pocket, to add to the sum in his chest; and the needy merchant continues to draw bills on his banker, as long as his former credit will support him, after his own stock is exhausted. We should be sorry to style Mr. Cumberland either a bankrupt in invention, or parsimonious of his exertions; but his present comedy so nearly resembles the others, that, 'to make a third, he joins the former two.' The plot is taken from *Tom Jones*. The hero is a foundling, maintained by charity, and at last appears to be the nephew of the gentleman who had hitherto supported him, and who differs from Allworthy only, in being acquainted with the secret: this variation is not advantageous, since the reader is at once aware of the termination, and the means by which it is produced. We remarked, in our review of the *Carmelite*, that Mr. Cumberland seemed to despise these artificial arrangements, since he felt that he was capable of arresting the attention by the magic of his language, and the force of the situations. In this comedy his wand seems to be broken, and his attendant spirits 'free as air.' In other respects the plot differs from the novel; but it is neither new, nor particularly interesting.

The characters are those of the West Indian, and the Fashionable Lover. Lady Paragon courts Blushenly, the foundling, almost in the language of Charlotte Rusport; and he has all the coolness, from the same motives, of Young Dudley. Ruefull has the feeling heart with the harsh outside of Mortimer, and Major O'Flaherty preserves both his name and his manners. It has been remarked, that second parts seldom succeed; the blush of novelty is lost, and the situations are seldom equally interesting. The first idea too is bold and vigorous; the colouring glows from an animated partiality; the continuation has the languor of a recollected image, and the execution drags heavily with all the weight of a necessary task.

The language of this play is seldom natural, or properly appropriated; it is frequently witty, though it sometimes descends to a pun; it aims at spirit, but it is a spirit which is not from the heart; the smile which is sometimes put on, to disguise pain or anxiety. We are indeed often pleased with and interested by a whole, though we cannot approve of the component parts; and it is necessary to acknowledge, that, with all the faults of this comedy, we are sometimes entertained. There is a little novelty in the character of

Dumps;

Dumps; and Jack Huffings, the Will Whimble of Addison, is an amusing companion. We shall extract the scene in which the former is first introduced.

*Dumps is brought in by David.*

*O'Flaherty* (*seeing Dumps as he enters*). Oh the Beelzebub! what's here?—Which of the seven deadly sins begot you? what gibbet have you defrauded of its surpiture?

*Dumps*. I am serving-man to Squire Ruefull; I hasten'd in advance, to signify the coming on of my master.—*Salve, Domine!*—*Et tu quoque!*—*Pax in domo!*

*O'Fl*. What the plague! which of your evil tongues is that?

*Dumps*. 'Tis Latin; I learnt it when I shew'd the tombs in Westminster Abbey.

*O'Fl*. Oho! if you come out of the tombs, 'tis no wonder you speak the *dead languages*.

*Dumps*. *Rebè.*

*Sir Jeff*. When will your master be here, fellow?

*Dumps*. Anon.

*Sir Jeff*. Hark ye, David, take this mummy into the cellar, and wet his dust with a cup of October. You'll find better company in my vaults, friend, than the abbey's.

*Dumps*. Oh dear, sir, I was reasonable merry, till I came into my master's service; he is a monument of a man: we shou'd have had a terrible journey of it, if we had not luckily fallen in with a black job by the way, and kept company with the corpse to Exeter cathedral.

*Jack*. I must be acquainted with this fellow.—What is your name?

*Dumps*. My name is Dumps, an' please you.

*Jack*. How long have you been in Mr. Ruefull's service?

*Dumps*. Five years by the calendar, five centuries by calculation.—I had indeed the choice of being keeper of a pest-house, but I was fool enough to withstand the offer; and, all other trades failing, took into my present service.

*O'Fl*. What other trades have you followed? let us know your history.

*Dumps*. 'Tis soon told, gentlemen.—I am the son of a sexton, and worked at my father's business in my youth; I then went into the service of a dissecting surgeon, and with my father's help furnish'd my master's academy with subjects.

*O'Fl*. Oh Lord, have mercy upon us!

*Dumps*. When that trade fail'd, I hir'd myself out to the Humane Society.

*O'Fl*. That was the devil of a jump backwards.

*Dumps*. Many an honest gentleman now walks about with breath of my blowing; but it was too much labour for one pair of lungs; and, by giving life to a drowned alderman upon a swan-hopping party, I contracted a consumption, and turn'd murder-monger to a morning paper.

*O'Fl*.



' O'Fl. Murder-monger! there you are in your old quarters once more.—And what's murder-monger, I would fain ask?

' *Dumps.* Casualty-compiler, an' please you, inventor of murders to amuse our customers; but they said I wanted variety in my violent deaths, I made too much use of the brewer's dray; so they took a tragic poet in my place, and I was turn'd into Westminster Abbey, as valet-de-chambre to the ragged regiment, to brush the dust off the faces of the wax-work; from thence I came into Squire Ruefull's service; and if I take another step downwards, it must be to the old one, for I can go no lower in this world.

' *Sir Jeff.* Try the depth of my cellar first, and then we'll talk further with you: get you gone— [Exit *Dumps.*']

On the whole, we must confirm the award of the spectators; and though, like them, we found sufficient inducement to look a second time at this comedy, we cannot stamp it with our approbation, or be much delighted with its frequent repetition.

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*The Life of Samuel Johnson, LL. D. With occasional Remarks on his Writings, an authentic Copy of his Will, and a Catalogue of his Works. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Kearsley.*

DR. Johnson was scarcely interred, before this biographer was ready with his last 'dying speech, life, and character.' This rapidity, if it contributed to gratify and almost anticipate curiosity, must have necessarily occasioned numerous errors, even in a well-informed author; but the present biographer does not deserve that title; and we can truly say, that his relations are erroneous, and sometimes contradictory.—He might indeed have visited Dr. Johnson, who received visitants of almost every class; but he seems to have been little acquainted with the man or the scholar. The instances related of Johnson's retentive memory are almost within the reach of common minds; the anecdotes are trifling; and the character is drawn with so little precision and accuracy, that, with very slight variations, it might be adapted to almost every man of learning.

Since there are few pages which might not occasion some animadversion, we shall not bestow on this production that time which we wish to employ on more important works. We cannot notice every error, and there are none so enormous as to deserve the preference. Those who have admired the author may wish for a description of his figure. As this is the most faithful part of the work, we shall select it, for a short extract.

' Dr.

Dr. Johnson's figure, even in his youth, could never have been calculated either "to make women false," or give him a preference in the schools of manly or military exercises. His face was composed of large coarse features, which, from a studious turn, when composed, looked sluggish, yet awful and contemplative. The head at the front of this book is esteemed a good likeness; indeed so much, that when the doctor saw the drawing, he exclaimed, "Well, thou art an ugly fellow, but still, I believe thou art like the original." The doctor sat for this picture to Mr. Trotter, in February 1782, at the request of Mr. Kearsley, who had just furnished him with a complete list of all his works, for he confessed he had forgot more than half what he had written.

His face, however, was capable of great expression, both in respect to intelligence and mildness, as all those can witness who have seen him in the flow of conversation, or under the influence of grateful feelings.

In respect to person, he was rather of the *heroic* stature, being above the middle size; but though strong, broad, and muscular, his parts were slovenly put together. When he walked the streets, *what with* the constant roll of his head, and the concomitant motion of his body, he appeared to make his way by that motion, independent of his feet. Indeed, to see him in most situations, he was not favourably distinguished by his *habits*.

We cannot take a more favourable opportunity, than at a time when every ear is eager to receive, and every mouth to convey, information on this subject, to suggest a few precautions to his future biographers — In the character of Dr. Johnson there were great learning and virtue united. The former was generally employed in the most useful manner; to adorn the rugged harshness of morality, to enforce the most important duties of religion, and to strengthen that resolution which might otherwise have yielded to fashionable follies or attractive vices. The latter was drawn into action, in circumstances which will confer the highest honour on his heart. But, if his biographers will attempt to raise him into perfection, if they will endeavour to show that his learning was as various as it was extensive, that prejudice never clouded his judgment, or that his perception of the elegant and beautiful was equally exact with his discernment of right and wrong; in short, if he is exalted into a 'faultless monster,' the attempt will injure his memory, and deprive the world of the advantage it might receive from an example, which otherwise might be emulated by the lovers of virtue, and the candidates for literary fame.

*A Che-*

*A Chemical Analysis of Wolfram; and Examination of a new Metal, which enters into its Composition. By Don John Joseph and Don Fausto De Luyart. Translated from the Spanish by Charles Cullen, Esq. 8vo. 1s. 6d. G. Nicol.*

WE are much pleased to see this ray of true science dawn in Spain: the analysis is executed with great accuracy and address; and these pupils of Bergman seem not to have been corrupted by the indolence, usually inspired with the Spanish air; or the example of their countrymen. In our last volume, page 274, we extracted from Mr. Kirwan's work, the properties of the tungstein acid, as they appeared both to Bergman and Schele; so that we need not make any particular observations on the introductory analysis of these chemists, which are properly prefixed to the present translation. We shall only premise, that the tungstein itself is easily distinguished from all stones; for, when the marine acid is poured on it in powder, and the mixture is set in a digesting heat, the powdered stone acquires a fine light yellow colour.

In the moist way, 100 grains of wolfram are found to consist of 22 of a black calx of manganese;  $13\frac{1}{2}$  of a calx of iron; 65 of a yellow matter; and 2 grains of a residuum, consisting of a mixture of quartz and tin. The slight increase of weight may proceed from the calcination of the iron and manganese; since the sum of all these quantities amount to  $102\frac{1}{2}$  grains.

The nature of the yellow matter was next to be examined; and it appeared, in particular circumstances, to form the acid of tungstein of Mr. Schele; but not to be a pure uncompounded substance, as he supposed, the small quantity of his materials having prevented him from pursuing the analysis with his usual accuracy. The messieurs Luyarts dissolved this yellow matter in the caustic alkali, and precipitating it again by an acid, procured a salt, sharp and bitter to the taste, which continued to be soluble on the slightest agitation, while any of the alkali was superabundant. This salt, composed of some alkali, the precipitating acid, and the yellow matter, was that to which the Swedish chemists had given the title of acid of tungstein. These details explain the cause of the appearances of acidity in the radical basis of the tungstein, and of its distinguishing quality with the marine acid. It is actually found to be a metallic calx, as Bergman suspected, and has been reduced by these authors, by means of charcoal alone; we shall extract their very short account of the appearances of the metal, which at present seems very refractory.

\* Having

Having put another hundred grains of this powder into a Zamora crucible, provided with charcoal, and well covered, and placed it in a strong fire, where it remained an hour and a half, we found, on breaking the crucible after it was cool, a button, which fell to powder between the fingers. Its colour was dark brown; and on examining it with a glass, there was seen a congeries of metallic globules, among which some were the bigness of a pin's head, and when broke, had a metallic appearance at the fracture in colour like steel. It weighed sixty grains, of course there was a diminution of forty. Its specific gravity was 17.6. Having calcined part of it, it became yellow, with  $\frac{2.4}{100}$  increase of weight. Having put one portion of this substance powdered, in digestion with the vitriolic acid, and another with the marine acid, neither of them suffered more diminution than  $\frac{2}{100}$  of their weight; then decanting the liquor; and examining the powder with a glass, the grains were still perceived of a metallic aspect: Both the acid liquors gave a blue precipitate with the Prussian alkali, which let us know that the small diminution proceeded from a portion of iron which the button had undoubtedly got from the powder of the charcoal in which it had been set. The nitrous acid, and aqua regia, extracted likewise from two other portions of the ferruginous part; but besides they converted them into yellow powder, perfectly similar to that which we used in this operation.

The acid nature of the calx now appears equivocal; but the authors are seemingly anxious for the reputation of Bergman, and eager to establish the general acid nature of metallic calces. But, though they own that they have not been able to obtain it pure, with properties decidedly acid, yet the union of the calx with alkalis, and particularly with the volatile alkali, as well as the properties of the compounds, show, in their opinion, that it is of an acid nature. These appearances seem however to us, very equivocal; but experience, rather than reasoning, must ultimately decide. It is more clear, that this metallic substance should be arranged with the other metals; and that it possesses distinct and permanent properties. Mr. Kirwan has added the wolfram to the species of iron ore, but has classed it with those of an uncertain nature. The analysis, which he extracts from Lehman, supposes it to consist of quartz, calx of iron, and a small proportion of tin. Mr. Kirwan adds, that from the experiments, he suspects it to contain manganese also. We do not mention this to detract from that excellent work, for it can never be perfect while any thing remains undiscovered; but merely to show what had been

been already done, and how much our authors had performed.

The memoir is written with accuracy, and seems to be translated with fidelity.

*A Rhetorical Grammar, or Course of Lessons in Elocution. By J. Walker. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Robinson.*

THE design of this work is, to give young persons an idea of the principles of speaking and reading with propriety. If these principles seem to be a little abstruse, it must be considered, that it is an arduous task to investigate the various powers and properties of the human voice, and to discriminate the precise tone, air, and energy, with which a sentence ought to be delivered. We daily feel in ourselves, and observe in others, the difficulty of pronouncing a page, either in verse or prose, with a just and graceful elocution. That there is a real difficulty in the acquisition of this art, must be acknowledged by every one who considers what a small number of good speakers we have, either on the stage, at the bar, in the senate, or in the church. Yet surely there is no part of education which deserves to be more attentively studied than the art of speaking. It will amply repay our utmost exertions. An harmonious voice, which may be improved, if not acquired, by exercise and habit, is extremely pleasing, both in speaking and reading. It gives weight and energy to every word; it captivates the ear, penetrates the soul, and even adds an irresistible charm to beauty.

The ingenious author of this Rhetorical Grammar has taken uncommon pains, not only by his publications, but by his personal instructions, to improve the state of our public elocution. In the present course of lessons, he seems to have reduced his whole theory into one complete and practical system. And he very reasonably hopes, 'that the sentences adduced for the illustration of the rules, the direction for the pronunciation of the figures of rhetoric, and above all, the praxis at the end, will be found the most certain, and at the same time the most easy, method of acquiring the art of reading, that has hitherto been offered to the public.'

The first part of this Grammar consists of instructions, addressed to parents and teachers of elocution. Here the author very properly observes, that it is a gross, as well as a common mistake of parents to suppose, that it is of little consequence who is employed in teaching a child the first rudiments of reading. This naturally leads him to point out some of the principal faults in the pronunciation of the younger class of

pupils; in sounding the vowels too slightly, in pronouncing indistinctly after *f*, in pronouncing *w* for *v*, and inversely, &c. in pronouncing too rapidly, and in reading with a monotony.

In some of his introductory lessons, he endeavours to ascertain the true sound of the auxiliary verbs, and other words of common occurrence; and then gives his young pupils a general idea of the common doctrine of punctuation; and more especially of what he calls rhetorical punctuation, namely, the nature and use of pauses.

A very essential part of the theory laid down in his Elements of Elocutions, consisted in the discovery and illustration of two principal inflections in the human voice, which he calls the rising and the falling slide. In this treatise he explains and exemplifies these inflections. And in answer to any objection which may be alleged against this part of his Grammar he says:

‘ So little has the speaking voice been studied, and so little are children practised to distinguish between speaking sounds, that the author will not be surprised, if neither the teacher nor pupil can at first perfectly comprehend the nature of the two slides, on which so much of his system depends; but, as this system obliged him to bring together every kind of sentence, and to class them according to their several distinguishing properties, he flatters himself that by reading sentences thus classed and arranged, the pupil will find more benefit, than by any other method yet discovered, even if he does not understand the different slides of voice, which are here annexed to them.’

In the following section he thus explains the nature of these inflections:

‘ The human voice, like all other sounds, may be considered as divisible into high and low, loud and soft: we may dwell a longer, or a shorter time, upon each of these varieties, and they may succeed one another, either more rapidly, or more slowly. These seem to be all the radical distinctions of sounds in general, but these may all be applied to musical sounds. Speaking sounds, to all these diversities, add another; which is, that of sliding up and down the scale of sounds by insensible degrees, exactly like the sound produced by a violin, when the finger slides up and down the string, while the bow vibrates it; so that speaking sounds may not be improperly called a species of *chromatic music*. These sounds, however, are in general so rapid and instantaneous, the slides so short, and the difference between them so small, as scarcely to be perceptible. We hear a variety upon the whole, but we cannot arrest it for examination. But when we read or speak deliberately, we perceive the slides more distinctly; and if we draw out our words, they become very apparent: if a word requires a strong

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emphasis, and we dwell some time upon it, especially if the word ends with an open vowel, we find the voice slide either upward or downward very perceptibly. Now, what the voice is heard to do when pronouncing slowly or forcibly, it certainly does when pronouncing rapidly and feebly, though the slides are not quite so perceptible: for if this were not the case, we must necessarily hear either a monotone or a song; as it is in slides only that these differ from speaking sounds.

"If then speaking sounds are slides, and these slides are necessarily either upward or downward, surely it is of some importance to the art of speaking to be acquainted with them. By understanding these slides, we can tell a pupil, not only that he is too high or too low, too loud or too soft, too quick or too slow, but that he makes use of an improper slide, a species of inflection as necessary as any other; but for want of studying the human voice, is totally unintelligible to him. Let us suppose, for example, a youth but little instructed in the art of reading were to pronounce the following sentence:

"Though we have no regard to our own character, we ought to have some regard for the character of others."

"There is the greatest probability I say, such a reader would pronounce the first emphatic word *own* with the rising, and the last emphatic word *others* with the falling inflexion, though this pronunciation certainly does not bring out the strongest sense of which the sentence is susceptible. To tell him he must lay more stress upon the word *own* will by no means set him right, unless he understands the peculiar kind of stress to be given; for he may increase the stress upon both the emphatic words without in the least removing the impropriety. But if his ear were sufficiently acquainted with this distinction to lay the emphasis with the falling slide on *own*, and that with the rising slide on *others*, a new and forcible meaning would be struck out, and the importance of these slides fully exemplified."

The author proceeds to shew the method of acquiring a knowledge of these slides, and to exemplify their use and application in sentences of every sort.

The subsequent part of this Grammar contains an explanation of the figures of rhetoric, with directions for the proper manner of pronouncing them. We shall give our readers, as a specimen, our author's observations on irony, which perhaps of all the figures in rhetoric requires the greatest art and attention in the modulation of the voice.

"Irony is a figure, in which one extreme is signified by its opposite extreme; or where we speak of one thing and design another, in order to give the greater force and poignancy to our meaning. Thus Cicero sometimes applies it in the way of jest and banter, where he says,

"We have much reason to believe the modest man would not ask him for his debt, where he pursues his life." *Pro Quint. c. 11.*

‘At other times, by way of insult and derision. Thus, when he would represent the forces of Cataline as mean and contemptible, he says,

“O terrible war! in which this band of profligates are to march under Cataline. Draw out all your garrisons against this formidable body!”

‘And at other times, in order to give the greater force to his argument, he seems, as it were, by this figure to recall and correct what he had said before: as in his oration for Milo:

“But it is foolish in us to compare Drusus, Africanus, and ourselves, with Clodius; all our other calamities were tolerable, but no one can patiently bear the death of Clodius.”

‘In pronouncing the first of these passages, we should assume an over-acted approbation, and such a tone of voice as seems to exclude all doubt of the integrity of the person we sneer at: this tone is low and drawling, and must be accompanied by a lifting-up of the hands, as if it were a crime to think otherwise than we speak.

‘In the second passage, we must assume a fear, as if occasioned by the most terrible danger. The voice must be in a high tremulous tone, and the hands lifted up, with the palms and fingers open, as if to defend us from approaching ruin.

‘In the third passage, we must assume a disapprobation approaching to contempt: the voice must be in a low tone, and the right-hand with the palm and fingers open, waved from the left to the right, as if to set aside something too insignificant to be attended to; but the last member must have the tone of approbation, as if the object of it were something very noble and sacred.

“——— Satan beheld their plight,  
And to his mates thus in derision call'd.  
O friends, why come not on those victors proud?  
Erewhile they fierce were coming, and when we  
To entertain them fair with open front  
And breast (what could we more?) propounded terms  
Of composition, straight they chang'd their minds,  
Flew off, and into strange vagaries fell  
As they would dance; yet for a dance they seem'd  
Somewhat extravagant and wild: perhaps  
For joy of offer'd peace; but I suppose  
If our proposals once again were heard,  
We should compel them to a quick revolt.”

*Milton's Paradise Lost, b. vi. v. 609.*

‘This passage, as Mr. Addison observes, is nothing but a string of puns, and those very bad ones too: but whatever may be its merits in other respects, it affords an excellent opportunity of practising the pronunciation of irony. It must begin by an affected surprize, and proceed with a seriousness and seeming sincerity till the seventh line, when the word *for* is to have an emphasis with the rising inflexion, and to be pronounced



nounced with an air of uncertainty, whether it were a dance or not. A sneer commences at *perhaps*, which must be pronounced with a fly arch tone, as if perfectly secure of the consequences of another onset.

The author concludes with a praxis, adapted to the foregoing rules, and containing a great variety of examples in prose and verse,

On this occasion, we cannot refuse our sincerest tribute of applause to the industrious, ingenious, and worthy author, for this laudable attempt to facilitate the acquisition of one of the most pleasing and important accomplishments, which the youth of either sex can possibly acquire.

*The New Rosciad, in the Manner of Churchill, containing a judicious, humorous, and critical Description of our present Dramatic Characters, 4to. 2s. 6d. Macklew.*

**T**HIS judicious, humorous, and critical description, is so totally void of judgment, humour, and criticism, that, were it not for the malevolence of its contents, it would be unworthy even of censure. The mind is offended to behold ignorance assume an authoritative tone, and deliver dogmas in ungrammatical and unintelligible language; but our disgust is increased when it attacks the reputation of persons whose abilities have justly acquired them fame in their profession. Fortunately, however, the malice of the writer is so effectually counteracted by his dulness, that little attention can be paid either to his panegyric or his satire. — He professes to write in the manner of a poet of acknowledged merit, whom he resembles in nothing more than ill-nature, the size of the page, and the enormous price of the pamphlet; for it will never be allowed, that the art of imitating Churchill consists in plagiarisms of thoughts, words, and even rhymes, with a servile imitation of the plan and machinery of the *Rosciad*, which, in the hands of this imitator, are incongruous and absurd. The following quotation affords an uncommon confusion of ideas.

‘ As yet uncertain was the gen’ral voice,  
As yet ’twas doubtful where to fix the choice;  
When, strange to tell! yet stranger to behold!  
Earth open’d! light’nings flash’d! and thunders roll’d!  
Forth from the gap a lofty dome appear’d,  
Its head a visionary fabric rear’d.  
No stately columns in set order plac’d,  
No costly paintings here the building grac’d;

But all dispos'd with *decency* was seen,  
 Irregularly grand, and simply *plain*;  
 High in the midst, *in* thrones, devoid of *state*,  
 By mighty Shakspeare's side, great Johnson *sate*.'

Strange to tell indeed ! and yet stranger to behold ! Earth opening, a lofty dome appearing from the *gap*, and the *head* of this dome turning builder, and rearing a visionary fabric, which fabric, or lofty dome, was *without column*, and in which were *thrones without state* ; *in*, not *on*, these thrones *sate* great Johnson ; but how many of them he contrived to sit *in* at the same time, we must leave to the conjecture and sagacity of our readers.—Need we be at farther pains to describe what the powers of discrimination are in a mind capable of conceiving such a jumble of incoherences ! The task is degrading ; but, lest it should be supposed we have unjustly selected a single weak passage, we will cite another or two equally absurd (they offer themselves in every page), that no doubt may remain in the mind of a candid reader in what estimation to hold this strange farrago, which the author has attempted to impose upon the world for the dictates of unprejudiced and sound criticism.

' In solemn march the *slow* procession came,  
 All sorts and sizes *burying* to fame ;  
 The deaf, the blind, the lame, all join the throng ;  
 The *young ones* led the old, the old the young ;  
 Thus bravely match'd, a mighty troop appear'd.'

Here is a solemn procession of a *mighty troop* of the *deaf, blind, and lame* ; of all *sorts and sizes*, bravely *match'd, slowly burying* to fame, in which the young ones led the old, and the old ones led the young.

' In dark *oblivion* buried be his name,  
 Consign'd by sense to *everlasting* shame.'

Consigning a person to *everlasting* shame by *forgetting* him, is a mode well worthy of our author.

' An ignis fatuus would have prov'd his fire  
 Without thy light, which warm'd his soul with fame  
 That *now* he *calls* his own.—true Humour's claim.'

Here we have *light* warming a *soul* with *fame*, which *fame* he (Mr. O'Keeffe, the person in question) *calls* his *own*, and which we should imagine the author meant to allow him, did he not inform us, in the latter part of the line, that it is the claim of True-humour. As to the light, which turned an ignis fatuus into fire, it was emitted by Mr. Colman ; and, were we inclined to enter into a research so deep, we should never

be able to determine whether the fame that followed belongs to Mr. Colman, Mr. O'Keeffe, or the said Mr. True-humour.

' Applause he gains, nor can the critic find  
A fault that age might not excuse *behind*.'

Mr. Macklin, we are told, is so perfect, that he has no faults *behind*, which age might not excuse; but whether a critic could or could not discover a fault *before*, of this unfortunately we are left in total ignorance.

To notice all the false rhymes, halting verses, and errors in language and construction, in the present performance, would be endless. We shall therefore conclude with a quotation from this judicious, humorous, and critical description of our present *dramatic characters* (the author means of our present actors), and which he has dedicated to George Colman, esq.—without that gentleman's permission, we may fairly presume.

' What! does he mean to give the playhouse rules?  
Direct the actors?—*He's the worst of fools!*'

## MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

### P O L I T I C A L.

*England's Alarm on the prevailing Doctrine of Libels, as laid down by the Earl of Mansfield. By M. Dawes, Esq. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stockdale.*

**I**N some pamphlets lately published on the doctrine of libels, it was contended that juries have a right to judge of the law as well as the fact; and that this right has been invariably exercised from the beginning of the English monarchy. But, however consistent with the spirit of the English constitution such a doctrine may appear to be, the allegation of ancient and invariable usage with respect to the exercise of this supposed right, though countenanced by the opinion of some lawyers, loosely delivered, is not supported by history. This is doubtless a strong objection to the validity of the popular claim as an ancient right. But to supply the deficiency, the present author has recourse to the constitution of the Athenian government; insisting, that as Socrates appears to have been condemned by a jury of his countrymen, English juries are entitled to the same right of trial in the case of libels. The author, apparently apprehensive of the weakness of this argument, ventures yet a step farther in support of his favourite doctrine, and insists, by more than implication, that the judicial right for which he contends is actually inherent in mankind. This, though a short, is not a very satisfactory mode of reasoning: nor indeed is there any thing throughout the pamphlet that deserves to be considered as sound argument. The doc-

trine, instead of being proved, is from the beginning taken for granted; and though founded only in hypothesis, is urged in a strain of the most petulant expostulation with a noble and learned lord, whose unblemished integrity, however, no less than his great abilities, the author acknowledges.

*A Gleam of Comfort to this distracted Empire.* 8vo. 2s. Debrett.

Poor Britannia! how much is she persecuted by the cruelty of her own ungrateful children! at one time her tranquillity is disturbed with ideal apprehensions; at another, her miseries are insulted with ironical consolation. This author is to Britain what the comforters of old were to Job; and to strengthen the allusion, that great example of patience was not more overwhelmed with calamity than, according to the modern comforter, is now the British constitution, under the guidance of the present ministers. The author informs us, in the conclusion of the pamphlet, that if a change of the administration should be attributed to his efforts, he would exclaim in the words of the poet, 'sublimi feriam sidera vertice.' It is pity that the darkness of the political atmosphere cannot afford so much as a gleam of comfort to gratify his ambition.

*A Plan for finally settling the Government of Ireland upon Constitutional Principles.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stockdale.

When in the course of our periodical examinations we meet with any political theorem which appears paradoxical, we think proper to recite it in the author's own words, lest it should be imagined that we had misrepresented his meaning. For this reason we have extracted the following paragraph in the present pamphlet.

'Whoever will analyse a civil society into its essential members, will find, that all those members are reducible to three classes, or, in other words, that a civil state requires only three things as necessary for its existence; the first, food; the second, clothing and housing; and the third, defence. On the supposition of a *paix perpetuelle*, or perpetual peace, the article of defence might be omitted; but as the nature of man renders such a system altogether ideal, this article of defence becomes as essentially necessary as the two former. Beyond those three articles then, all expences that people in social communities incur, are neither more nor less than taxes; nay, strictly speaking, are more taxes and burdens than those paid to government; for these last are absolutely necessary for the *being* of a state, but the others are only requisite to its *well-being*.'

We must acknowledge we should be of opinion, that the proposition with which this paragraph concludes is directly the reverse of the truth; nor could we hesitate a moment to suppose that the author was jocular, were we not convinced, on a farther perusal, that he is serious. But though we unfortunately differ from him with respect to the principle which is the basis  
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of his plan, and consequently cannot entirely agree with him in regard to the subordinate parts, we think he evinces very clearly, that Ireland is capable of affording a proportionable share of the burden which is necessary for the naval protection of the sister kingdoms. To this the Irish can have less objection, when they are assured by the author, and that by arguments not in the least paradoxical, that by the means of such a contribution, their national prosperity would be increased.

*An Address to the Members of both Houses of Parliament on the late Tax laid on Fustian and other Cotton Goods. By John Wright, M.D. 8vo. 1s. Johnson.*

The author of this pamphlet, who resides at Manchester, represents the tax on fustian and other cotton goods, as extremely pernicious to the manufactures of this country. He affirms, that it has already affected the trade of Manchester very sensibly; and that if it should be allowed to continue, it may not only ruin that flourishing town, and several others in Great Britain, but prove the means of extinguishing this valuable branch of manufacture throughout the kingdom. We are sorry that the inhabitants of so considerable a town as Manchester should find reason to censure the obnoxious tax so severely; and there is reason to think, that if the representation made by Dr. Wright should prove not to be exaggerated by any local interests or attachments, the tax will either be repealed, or so modified as to be rendered unexceptionable.

*The Thirty-nine Articles; or, a Plan of Reform in the Legislative Delegation of Utopia. 8vo. 6d. Johnson.*

These Thirty-nine Articles are merely political, and contain the general heads of a proposed reformation in the election of representatives in parliament. The second article is 'That all men of age, grandees, convicts, and insane persons excepted, be admitted to vote at the election of the legislative delegates of Utopia.' The reader may easily form a judgment of the rest by this leading article; which, though a favourite scheme with some reformers is a wild and chimerical project, that would be attended with no advantage; but, on the contrary, with fatal effects on the sobriety, industry, regularity, and peace of the nation in general. An annual election, which this writer recommends, upon these principles, would be an annual curse.

*Remarks on the Commutation Act. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Becket.*

Two objects were proposed by the Commutation Act. One of these was to lower the duties, and reduce the price of teas, as the means of discouraging illicit trade; and the other, to supply the consequent defalcation of revenue, by substituting an additional tax on windows; for which new impost the public was to be compensated by the reduced price of teas. But it  
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has been very currently objected to this act, that it obliges many families to pay an equivalent tax for a commodity which they either do not consume, or in a far less quantity than is requisite to indemnify them, by the reduced price, for the additional impost on the windows. It has also been objected to this act, that, from the different kinds of tea consumed by the different classes of the people, and from the unequal reduction of the prices of teas, those persons who chiefly pay the new rate for windows, partake the least of all in the benefit of the commutation. These objections are displayed by the author of the Remarks with much amplification. Did he however confine himself to these, and a few others which might be mentioned as reasonable, his conduct would merit approbation; but when he endeavours to persuade his readers of a combination between the minister and the directors of the East India company, he overleaps the bounds of candour, and indulges himself, as he does also on other occasions, in a prejudice, too obvious to gain credit, and too groundless not to be censured.

*A Sermon on the Window-Tax. Not intended to be preached in St. Stephen's Chapel, on Candlemas-Day, 1785. 4to. 1s. Bladon.*

The text which this preacher has chosen for the display of his oratorical talents, is taken from Exodus x. 21. 'And the Lord said unto Moses, stretch forth thine hand toward heaven, that there may be darkness over the land of Egypt, even darkness that may be felt.' It is sufficient to say, that the author has very happily illustrated the text by his own example; for, from the beginning to the end, he is almost perpetually enveloped in the darkness which himself has created. We must however except a few intervals, where some faint rays of humour are discernible.

*Tim Twisting to Dick Twining; or, a Seaman to a Teaman: being a Plain-Dealer's Answer to a Tea-Dealer's Letter. 8vo. 2s. Jarvis.*

Under a ludicrous title-page, this pamphlet is almost entirely employed on the commutation-act, which honest Tim Twisting certainly twists in a very humorous manner.

# P O E T R Y.

*Essais sur le Paix de 1783. 8vo. 1s. Longman.*

This poem is, an episode of a larger work, preparing for the press. The sentiments are animated, and the versification easy.

*A Dialogue between the Earl of C——d and Mr. Garrick, in the Elysian Shades. 4to. 1s. 6. Cadell.*

This Dialogue opens with considering the merits of Shakspeare, and his Henry the Vth. Garrick intreats his lordship not to 'misname' the latter a 'portrait,' and seems to forget his spiritual situation, when he exclaims,

• Let

‘Let me perish if it is not  
 Harry’s great self that flames forth into view  
 Led on by Shakspeare.’—

Lord C——d, very considerably, desires him to ‘pause a time, and resume his tale.’ After thrice bidding his lordship ‘to pine,’ he informs him that there is coming to the Elysian shade,

‘The tutor of all times,  
 The everlasting minister of truth,  
 Alive, tho’ dead.’

The reader cannot be surprised at lord C——d’s twice desiring him to ‘name’ the person invested with attributes not strictly consistent with humanity. Dr. Johnson is then mentioned; and his lordship having made some ineffectual efforts to check the violence of Garrick’s encomiums, permits him to conclude the poem in the most rapturous style of panegyric. The author having informed us, in his dedication, that ‘he and Johnson were natives of the same city, and that he had been personally obliged by Garrick,’ we were in hopes of finding some anecdotes relative to persons so justly celebrated; and that he would, to use his own words,

— ‘give our famish’d curiosity  
 Its food of information.’

The mental refecion however we have met with, proved rather insipid, and unpalatable.—We by no means discommend the author’s zeal, and wish we could speak higher of his abilities.

*Poetic Lectures, adapted to the present Crisis.* 8vo. 6d. Buckland.

This is only the First Number of a work, which we are told, if it meets with approbation, will be continued, and ‘comprised, if possible, in one hundred octavo Numbers.’ It is a strange incoherent performance. The author’s understanding is certainly deranged, or he must suppose his readers, if he has any besides his unfortunate reviewer, in that situation.

*Elegy to the Memory of Captain James King, LL. D. F. R. S. By the Rev. William Ford, ce Mavor.* 4to. Nichol.

No sentiment is more frequently introduced in funereal panegyrics than that if virtue, honour, &c. could exempt mortals from fate, the lamented object would not so soon have perished. The author having expatiated on this hackneyed idea, contrives in the conclusion, to give it an air of obscurity, of which we should scarcely imagine it susceptible.

‘No—could these plead, and length of days ensure,  
 Late should our tears for thee, O King! have flown,  
 And long, from sublunary ills secure,  
 The guardian powers had claim’d thee for their own.’

For 'these,' we should read *these*, for 'flown,' *flowed*; the first being the participle from *fly*, not *flow*, perplexes the sense, which is by no means clearly expressed in the lines that follow. The poem is however, in general, written with spirit and elegance; and neither reflects disgrace on the author, nor the brave and ingenious officer whose memory he celebrates.

## M E D I C A L.

*An Essay on the Uterine Hamorrhage, which precedes the delivery of the full-grown Fetus. By Edward Rigby. Third Edition. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Johnson.*

This is an improved edition of a very valuable work, which we recommend with the more confidence, as we know it to be a narrative faithfully related from the dictates of nature. Mr. Rigby gives us the best and most useful rules how to proceed in an exigence which has puzzled the most able practitioners, and on which authors have been frequently silent, from an inability to decide. These rules have been now reviewed by different practitioners, and the increasing demand for the work is sufficient argument of the propriety of the author's directions. We have had frequent occasion of mentioning it with respect.

*Some New Hints, relative to the Recovery of Persons drowned; and apparently dead. By John Fuller, Surgeon. 8vo. 1s. Cadell.*

These Hints deserve attention: the novelty consists first in laying the body on cakes of wax, by which it is completely insulated, and, in that situation, drawing sparks from different parts of it; 2dly, in transfusing the warm blood of a living animal into the veins of the person who is apparently drowned. If electricity is ever of service, it will be probably in the way here recommended; but the second expedient, which promises great advantages, will not be so readily adopted. A proper animal cannot always be procured; and a considerable aversion to transfusion yet continues. The author, whose ingenuity deserves our commendation, thinks also, that bleeding from the jugular veins is not practised so often as it should be, for the advantage of the patient. In this too we agree with him; since, in the experiments of De Haen, a large collection of blood was always found in the vessels of the brain.

*A Treatise on Cancers, with a new and successful Method of operating, &c. By Henry Fearon. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Johnson.*

It was formerly a received opinion, that the wounds, after the extirpation of cancers, should be kept open, so as to discharge freely, and evacuate that part of the morbid matter which might imperceptibly have remained. But, though the practice was in appearance plausible, the success was not so strongly marked as to prevent practitioners from other attempts. Mr. Fearon recommends a longitudinal incision, and advises the surgeon to preserve the skin, if sound, that after the dissection



tion the edges may be brought together, and united by the first intention. In this way cancers of the lips have been usually treated; and our author only extends the method to those of other parts, well adapted to it. The pain is certainly in some degree diminished, but not much; for the dissection from the skin, though not so exquisitely painful as that of the skin itself, is an addition to the usual operation. Whether, in this way, the cancer is less liable to return, must be decided by more extensive experience: the wound is much more quickly healed, and the strength less impaired. Indeed we suspect, that cancers are more frequently local than practitioners commonly imagine; there are very few instances, in which they seem connected with the general system; and we fear that Dr. Fothergill's opinion on this subject has awakened the apprehensions of many, without sufficient foundation.

*A Letter on Consumptions, and their Cure. By N. Galtbold. 8vo. EL. Almon.*

Hippocrates was the first botanist, Turner the first English botanist, and the vegetable balsam the best remedy for consumptions. The incredulous reader may perhaps doubt of some of these assertions; but the two former are on the author's own testimony, and the latter supported by a cloud of witnesses, some of them of high rank and respectable characters.—This is all the information we have derived from the Letter, and we liberally communicate it. There is a list of syrups at the end, which the author has prepared; but it requires a commentary to explain the meaning of some of these titles. Who has ever heard of syrup of gibrumbeth, mivabelano, or ringea? Buena pastory, we suppose, may mean *barba pastoris*, or shepherd's purse.

## D I V I N I T Y.

*Sacred History selected from the Scriptures, with Annotations and Reflections, suited to the Comprehension of young Minds. Vols. V. and VI. By Mrs. Trimmer. 12mo. 7s. sewed. Robinson.*

These two volumes comprehend the history of our Saviour, and the Acts of the Apostles. The narrative is continued in the words of our common translation. Wherever there seemed to be occasion, the prophecies are introduced, and applied in conformity to the usual acceptation. At the conclusion of the sixth volume, the author gives a short account of the evangelists and apostles, and an extract from the Apocalypse on the consummation of all things. The annotations and reflections are copious, practical, and orthodox, and display the great piety, industry, and good sense of the writer.

*Appendix to the Scripture Lexicon. 8vo. 1s. Johnson.*

The compiler of the Scripture Lexicon\*, having omitted some names in the canonical books, and many which occur in the Apocrypha, has supplied this defect in the present Appendix; and has likewise inserted a short account of several Jewish rites,

\* See Crit. Rev. vol. lviii. p. 312.

and of animals and plants mentioned in the Bible; he has also made alterations and improvement in a few other other articles in his Lexicon.

*A Charge delivered to the Clergy of York, June 16, 1784. By William Cooper, DD, F. R. S. Archdeacon of York.* 4to. 1s. 6d. L. Davis.

This very respectable writer directs the attention of his rev. brethren to some late alarming calamities, and remarkable phenomena, in various countries, which, he thinks, should be considered as the admonitions of divine Providence. He then represents, in the strongest light, the general depravity of this nation; takes a cursory view of the subversion of several ancient states and kingdoms; and concludes with some useful admonitions to the clergy, exhorting them to labour with unremitting assiduity in their profession, in order to check the vices of the age, and promote the practice of virtue.

The following exhortation displays the author's disinterested benevolence.—'Do not over-value the world; use it as not abusing it; hoard not up the emoluments arising from preferment, for private purposes; expend them judiciously; repair or re-build the parsonage houses, if necessary; establish schools for the education of children; aid your parishioners; remit their tithes, &c.'

It is to be lamented, that out of ten thousand benefices in this kingdom, there are at least nine thousand, which are scarcely sufficient to afford their respective incumbents, in these expensive times, the common conveniencies of life; and those who remit the piteous gleanings, called tithes, will find themselves but ill-qualified to build houses, or to promote any charitable establishment. Happy however is the rector or vicar, who can pursue this liberal advice.

*The Antiquity, Use, and Excellence of Church Music. A Sermon preached at the opening of a New Organ in the Cathedral Church of Christ, at Canterbury. By George Horne, D. D. Dean of Canterbury.* 4to. 1s. Rivington.

In treating of the antiquity of church music, the author observes, that instrumental music could have no place during the times of persecution, when, for fear of their enemies, the Christians were obliged to hold their assemblies in secret chambers, in dens and caves of the earth. Organs, he adds, are said by some to have been introduced into churches about the middle of the seventh; by others, not till the eleventh, or twelfth century; since which time, this kind of music has made a part in the Christian service.

To the honour of the place where this discourse was delivered, he remarks, that in England, choral service was first introduced in Canterbury cathedral, and the practice of it long confined to the churches of Kent, from whence it became gradually diffused over the whole kingdom.

Speak.

Speaking of the excellency of church music, he gives the late Commemoration of Handel this transcendent encomium:

A performance has lately been exhibited, and to our honour has been exhibited in Britain (its sound still vibrates in the ears of many who hear me) which furnished the best idea we shall ever obtain on earth of what is passing in heaven.

Passing in heaven! Alas; what do we know of heaven! If there be any expressions in scripture which speak of heavenly harmony, they are highly figurative, and should not be understood in the gross, literal sense. For we are assured, that it hath not entered into the human imagination to conceive the joys of the blessed. The business of music is, comparatively speaking, an idle trade. And it is, more than probable, that there is not the least analogy between the poor, empty sounds of our organs and violins, and the sublime, intellectual pleasures of a future state.

### CONTROVERSIAL, &c.

*An Appeal to the Public; or, a Candid Narrative of the Rise and Progress of the Dissensions now subsisting in the Roman Catholic Congregation of Liverpool.* 12mo.

This appeal makes a volume of four hundred and thirty pages, containing a minute account of some dissensions in the Roman catholic congregation at Liverpool, relative to 'temporalities.' The circumstances of the dispute are too numerous, and too intricate, to be properly stated in this article. Those who are interested in the contest, or wish for farther information, must have recourse to this Narrative.

*A Letter to the Roman Catholics of Worcester, from the late Chaplain of that Society [Charles Henry Wharton.]* 8vo. 1s. Rivington.

This appears to be a fair, dispassionate, and rational account of the motives, which induced the author to relinquish the Roman Catholic communion, and become a member of the Protestant church.

*An Explanatory Appeal to the Society in General, and his Friends in Particular; with an Appendix.* By William Matthews. 12mo, 9d. Dilly.

The people called Quakers deem it necessary to 'fix judgment upon,' and disown as unfit for their communion, all such as contract marriages out of the pale of their society; and likewise censure and disown such as shall not refuse to pay tithes, and other demands, imposed by act of parliament, for the establishment of a national church. The very sensible and liberal-minded author of this Appeal conceived, that they had no warrant from scripture example or precept to impose such a prohibition or censure; and on some occasions declared his sentiments to this purpose, presuming, that every thing which is essential to a Christian communion among them may be deemed to consist, I. In the belief of the doctrine of inward revelation; II,

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The non-necessity, under the Christian dispensation, of human rites in divine worship; and III. The benefit of a silent waiting upon God in their religious meetings. These sentiments were highly displeasing to his brethren; and he was accordingly disowned both as a minister and as a member of society. 'As he had reason to think, that his opinions, situation, and views have been injuriously spoken of in different places, he has been induced, he says, to throw together a brief account of himself, and of the treatment he has met with,' which is written in such a manner, as cannot but do him honour, except among disciplinarians of his own party, whose principles and notions of Christianity are contracted and ungenerous.

*A Letter to the Rev. S. Badcock, the Monthly Reviewer, in which his Uncharitableness, Ignorance, and Abuse of Dr. Priestley, are exposed.* By Edward Harwood, D.D. 8vo. 1s. Bent.

There is too much acrimony in this publication. The author, when he mentions his adversary, treats him with contempt and indignation, and not, as he might have done to greater advantage, with genteel irony. But to this mode of retaliation he was, we must confess, very naturally incited, by the illiberal sarcasms and personal reflections, which had been cruelly and wantonly thrown upon him in some periodical publications.

*Elements of Modern Gardening; or, the Art of laying out of Pleasure Grounds, ornamenting Farms, and embellishing the Views round about our Houses.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. Baldwin.

These Elements are dictated by good sense, and in general by a refined taste: their object is, to instruct gentlemen in laying out small pieces of ground in a manner both cheap and easily executed; but we object to the little tricks of art, where they must be easily detected. If the end be to form a prospect, they may be allowed; but the view which is admired at a distance will tempt the stranger to walk over it; and the rill which seems to wind at the bottom of a lawn, and to pass under a stately arch, will disgust instead of pleasing, when it appears to be a stagnant water, and that the arch is not pervious. It should be a rule with artists to aim only at what they can fully attain.

*The Angler's Museum.* By Tho. Shirley. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Fielding.

This pamphlet, which is ill compiled, was published some years ago, but now makes a second appearance, ornamented with a head of Mr. Kirby, the keeper of Wood-street Compter. Under his auspices, therefore, with this character we shall leave it.

*The Fisherman; or the Art of Angling made easy.* By Guinard Chasby, Esq. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Dixwell.

Another compilation of the same kind, but even less satisfactory than the former.



# T H E

## CRITICAL REVIEW.

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For M A R C H, 1785.

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*Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London. Vol. LXXIX. For the Year 1784. Part I. 4to. 7s. 6d. L. Davis.*

**I**T is disagreeable to us to blame; therefore, as we are not able to pay any great compliment to the importance of this part of the annual volume, we shall proceed, as usual, to particular articles.

Art. I. An Observation of the Variation of Light in the Star Algol. By Sir Henry C. Englefield, Bart. F. R. S. and S. A.—Art. II. Observations on the Obscuration of the Star Algol. By Pallitch, a Farmer.—Art. III. Further Observations upon Algol. By the same.—In the 339th page of our last Volume, we mentioned the observations of Mr. Goodriche, on the star Algol, in the head of Medusa, for which he has received sir Godfrey Copley's medal. We then attributed the changes in its appearance to a planet revolving round this distant sun, and see no reason for altering our opinion. The period observed by Mr. Goodriche was two days, twenty-hours, and forty-eight minutes. The first and third observations differ from Mr. Goodriche's only four minutes, and the second five.

Art. IV. Descriptions of the King's Wells at Sheerness, Languard-fort, and Harwich. By Sir Thomas Hyde Page, Knt. F. R. S.—There is a great display of ingenuity in the contrivances to procure water in these places, where the situation is so low, the ground swampy, and the sea-water constantly overflowing. At Fort Townshend, Sheerness, the well was sunk 330 feet. The strata were a blue clay, sand, and gravel, which seem to have succeeded each other without any remarkable variety. At 330 feet, on boring through clay with a small mixture of sand, fresh water burst through with violence, and rose in six hours 189 feet; and, in a few days, it came to within a few feet of the top. As the mixture of sea-water is prevented, this spring is found pure, and of an un-

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usual warmth. We wish that the heat had been mentioned:  $53^{\circ}$  of Farenheit are at present supposed to mark the mean temperature of the earth; and indeed water at that degree would feel unusually warm. At Landguard fort, good water appeared within eight feet of the surface, and continued in vast quantity almost to the spring-tide low-water mark; but it then became salt. At Harwich they found pure water, by sinking the wells through a rock, from the high ground, to prevent the drains of bad water, common in that neighbourhood.

We have now stated the several facts, without any commentary; but we think they will admit of important remarks: though these would be too extensive for our purpose. The mechanical contrivances are not intelligible without the plates.

Art. V. Extract of a Letter from Edward Pigott, Esq. containing the Discovery of a Comet.—The comet was discovered at York the 19th of November 1783: on that day its right ascension was  $41^{\circ}$ , and its northern declination  $3^{\circ} 10'$ . It was increasing in declination, and looked like a nebula, with a diameter of about  $2''$ .

Art. VI. Project for a new Division of the Quadrant. By Charles Hutton, LL. D. F. R. S.—Dr. Hutton proposes to divide the axis of a quadrant into equal parts of the radius, instead of the arbitrary division into 60 degrees, since the cords, sines, and tangents, are divided in the former way. He explains the method of constructing a table of this kind; which is incapable of abridgement. The task would be indeed laborious; but it would be very advantageous.

Art. VII. On the Means of discovering the Distance, Magnitude, &c. of the fixed Stars, in Consequence of the Diminution of the Velocity of their Light, in Case such a Diminution should be found to take place in any of them, and such other Data should be procured from Observations, as would be farther necessary for that Purpose. By the Rev. John Michell, B. D. F. R. S.—Since the invention of the telescope, several reasons have concurred to make the planets hitherto the principal objects of the astronomer's attention. By the accurate knowledge which we have obtained of their magnitudes, distances, velocity, &c. the subject seems to be nearly exhausted, unless Mr. Herschel, or some other lucky and accurate observer, should discover another new planet. Probably, for this reason, astronomers have for some time turned their attention to the fixed stars, as opening a field for observation, that will not easily be gone over; and the rather, as conjecture must, in a great measure, supply the want of sufficient data for reason and experiment. It is therefore no disgrace  
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to the author of this article, to have made one supposition the foundation of another, and *that* of others, in order to attain probability, which is the utmost we can expect, when we are reasoning upon bodies too remote for even an apparent diameter.

Mr. Mitchell observes,

'The very great number of stars that have been discovered to be double, triple, &c. particularly by Mr. Herschel, if we apply the doctrine of chances, as I have heretofore done in my "Enquiry into the probable Parallax, of the Fixed Stars," published in the *Philosophical Transactions* for the year 1767, cannot leave a doubt with any one, who is properly aware of the force of those arguments, that by far the greatest part, if not all of them, are systems of stars so near to each other, as probably to be liable to be affected sensibly by their mutual gravitation; and it is therefore not unlikely, that the periods of the revolutions of some of these about their principals (the smaller ones being, upon this hypothesis, to be considered as satellites to the others) may some time or other be discovered.'

It was necessary to quote this passage particularly, since it is the first time we recollect any of the fixed stars to have been considered as satellites. The author is sufficiently aware of the length of time requisite either to confute or establish this idea.

He proposes to measure the distance, density, and magnitude of these bodies by the diminution of the velocity of light, if light be under the laws of gravitation. We shall select his own words.

'The diminution of the velocity of light, in case it should be found to take place in any of the fixed stars, is the principal phenomenon whence it is proposed to discover their distance, &c. Now the means by which we may find what this diminution amounts to, seems to be supplied by the difference which would be occasioned in consequence of it, in the refrangibility of the light, whose velocity should be so diminished. For let us suppose with sir Isaac Newton (see his *Optics*, prop. vi. par. 4 and 5.) that the refraction of light is occasioned by a certain force impelling it towards the refracting medium, an hypothesis which perfectly accounts for all the appearances. Upon this hypothesis the velocity of light in any medium, in whatever direction it falls upon it, will always bear a given ratio to the velocity it had before it fell upon it; and the sines of incidence and refraction will, in consequence of this, bear the same ratio to each other with these velocities inversely. Thus, according to this hypothesis, if the sines of the angles of incidence and refraction, when light passes out of air into glass, are in the ratio of 31 to 20, the velocity of light in the glass must be to its velocity in air in the same proportion of

31 to 20. But because the areas representing the forces generating these velocities, are as the squares of the velocities, these areas must be to each other as 961 to 400. And if 400 represents the area which corresponds to the force producing the original velocity of light, 561, the difference between 961 and 400, must represent the area corresponding to the additional force, by which the light was accelerated at the surface of the glass.

Mr. Mitchell imagines also, that a prism, with a small refracting angle, would be a convenient instrument to measure the difference of the velocity of light. We are surprised that he has not himself tried the experiment, as the instrument is so easily procured. The whole paper is ingenious, and will probably be found to deserve attention.

Art. VIII. A Meteorological Journal for the Year 1782, kept at Minehead, in Somersetshire. By Mr. John Atkins.—Meteorological journals are of considerable utility, when connected with the prevailing epidemics; but, independent of them, are solitary detached facts of curiosity rather than advantage. This diary is, in our opinion, unnecessarily minute; and from the sudden changes in the thermometer, we strongly suspect that this instrument is affected by the reflection of the sun, though not exposed to its direct beams. Few are aware by what inconsiderable causes a nice thermometer is influenced. The rain, during the year, at Minehead, was in 1782, 31.26 inches; and this quantity is seldom exceeded, even in the situations most subject to rain.

Art. IX. Description of a Meteor, observed August 18, 1783. By Mr. Tiberius Cavallo, F. R. S.—Art. X. An Account of the Meteors of the 18th of August and 4th of October, 1783. By Alex. Aubert, Esq. F. R. S.—Art. XI. Observations on a remarkable Meteor seen on the 18th of August, 1783. By William Cooper, D. D. F. R. S. Archdeacon of York.—Art. XII. An Account of the Meteor of the 18th of August, 1783. By Richard Lovell Edgeworth, Esq. F. R. S.—Art. XVIII. An Account of some late fiery Meteors; with Observations. By Charles Blagden, M. D. Sec. R. S.—We join these different articles, as they relate to the same or similar phenomena; but shall give a particular account of Dr. Blagden's observations, since they comprise those of the former articles, as well as many other descriptions of the same meteors. The first occurred the 18th of August, about 16 minutes after 9. It seems to have arisen somewhere in the northern ocean, beyond the extremities of this island, and was observed in the N. N. W. quarter, from whence it proceeded S. S. E. almost in the direction of the magnetic meridian.

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When it was nearly over Lincolnshire, it seemed to deviate, in its course, more towards the east; and this deviation was marked by two loud reports, described by Dr. Cooper near Stockton, each as equal to that of a nine-pounder, and pretty distinctly heard at Windsor, by Mr. Cavallo. At this time too, the ball seemed to burst into many smaller ones; but soon resuming its original course and appearance, passed the Straits of Dover, and was probably seen as far as Rome. It seems to have extended its course above one thousand miles, and not to have been less than fifty-five miles above the surface of the earth: its transverse diameter was probably near half a mile; and its real elongation behind, for the apparent length of train was delusive, seems seldom to have exceeded twice or thrice its real transverse diameter: its velocity was astonishing, for it probably exceeded twenty miles in a second,

This is a short account of the result of various observations; we are obliged to omit Dr. Blagden's reasoning, but we are satisfied that his computations are within the truth. The second meteor appeared the 4th of October, at 43' past 6 in the evening. Its direction was nearly the same as that of the first, and the height seems not to have been less; but its duration was so transitory, that few observations were made on it.

Dr. Blagden then proceeds to some general remarks on the nature of these surprising bodies, which seem almost to realise Buffon's visionary system, of pieces struck from the sun, 'whirled with endless violence o'er the pendant world,' till, their projectile force diminishing, they yield to the attractive power of some other sun, and become sober planets, and new worlds. But many will think, with our author, that this fanciful hypothesis scarcely deserves attention. Dr. Blagden has not even condescended to mention it in his enumeration of the different opinions relating to the cause of these or similar meteors. He is inclined to think them of an electrical nature; or perhaps, an accumulated light, of the same kind with that which starts and plays in the aurora borealis. The hissing noise, which some observers describe, when the meteor passes near them, is felt in northern countries on the appearance of these lights; and their direction in the magnetical meridian supports the analogy. We shall extract the following quotation from professor Gmelin; on account of its curiosity, though we think, with Dr. Blagden, that the appearances are exaggerated.

"These northern lights begin with single bright pillars, rising in the N. and almost at the same time in the N. E. which gradually increasing, comprehends a large space of the heavens;

rush about from place to place with incredible velocity, and finally almost cover the whole sky up to the zenith. The streams are then seen meeting together in the zenith, and produce an appearance as if a vast tent was expanded in the heavens, glittering with gold, rubies, and sapphire. A more beautiful spectacle cannot be painted; but whoever should see such a northern light for the first time, could not behold it without terror. For however fine the illumination might be, it is attended, as I have learned from the relation of many persons, with such a hissing, cracking, and rushing noise throughout the air, as if the largest fire-works were playing off. To describe what they then hear, they make use of the expression *spolochi ebodjat*, that is, the raging host is passing. The hunters who pursue the white and blue foxes in the confines of the icy sea, are often overtaken in their course by these northern lights. Their dogs are then so much frightened, that they will not move, but lie obstinately on the ground till the noise has passed. Commonly clear and calm weather follows this kind of northern lights. I have heard this account, not from one person only, but confirmed by the uniform testimony of many, who have spent part of several years in these very northern regions, and inhabited different countries from the Yenisei to the Lena; so that no doubt of its truth can remain. This seems indeed to be the real birth-place of the aurora borealis."

Our author does not imagine that the meteor's direction is influenced by magnetism; but that the direction of the magnetic power is produced by the accumulation of the electric fluid, in the N. N. W. quarter. This is indeed the center of the aurora borealis; for, though we have seen it in many different quarters, yet it scarcely ever appears in the S. S. E. We have seen every point of the compass illuminated at one time, except this; and we have never seen it enlightened at the same time with the North. Those will understand this variety, who attend to the different states of positive and negative electricity; or who recollect, that some meteors proceed from the south, though they still continue in the magnetic meridian.

Art. XVII. On a Method of describing the relative Position and Magnitudes of the Fixed Stars; together with some Astronomical Observations. By the Rev. Francis Wollaston, LL. B. F. R. S.—As so many changes have occurred in the appearances of the fixed stars, Mr. Wollaston proposes, that astronomers should examine their present appearance with accuracy, and form a more exact celestial atlas than has yet been published. To a night-glass of Dolland's construction, which magnifies about six times, and takes in as many degrees of a great circle, Mr. Wollaston has added four wires, crossing each other in the centre. By this means any star may be brought

to the centre, and the relative situation of the surrounding ones easily sketched on a card, and their places are afterwards to be reduced to the general atlas. If the situation of any star is doubtful, it may be brought to the centre, and its place more exactly ascertained. After the principal stars are thus marked, the plan may be filled up by using glasses of a greater power, and fixing the situation of smaller stars: the whole atlas may, in Mr. Wollaston's opinion, be soon completed, if astronomers will divide the heavens into particular districts, and each confine himself to one. The paper is concluded with an account of different astronomical observations.

The only remaining articles of this volume relate to Mr. Cavendish's experiments on air, and the controversy which they have occasioned between him and Mr. Kirwan; but, as we wish to examine the subject with care, we must delay our account of it till the appearance of our next Number.

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*A System of Surgery. By Benjamin Bell, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons, one of the Surgeons to the Royal Infirmary, and Fellow of the Royal Society of Edinburgh. Illustrated with Copper-plates. Vol. III. 8vo. 6s. in Boards. Robinson.*

**I**N the Fifty-fifth and Fifty-seventh Volumes we have carefully examined the former parts of this work, and, on that account, may be now more concise. The third volume contains the chirurgical treatment of affections of the brain from violence, and diseases of the eye. It is distinguished by the same clearness and accuracy which we have already mentioned, and it is extended with the same minuteness: a minuteness which may be necessary to young practitioners, and on subjects of importance, but which is seldom agreeable to proficients.

In trepanning, Mr. Bell recommends the trepan, in preference to the trephine. He disapproves of removing a large portion of the scalp, but advises the practitioner to raise it in the usual manner; and, if necessary, to 'cut off the corners.' We look on it as a material improvement in modern practice, that every portion of the scalp, except what may be injured by the contusion, is preserved and united by the first intention. Mr. Bell's sagacity has discovered the utility of this method in general; and we now only plead in favour of the little angles. Our author thinks that a contra-fissure may easily occur, and that even the internal table may be fractured, while no fracture appears on the external surface. A shock will certainly sometimes break a more thin brittle substance, when

connected with another, which can bear the blow itself uninjured; but it is not probably a frequent occurrence. We were once shown an instance of contra-fissure, in a concave glass, which accidentally fell on its side. The part on which it fell was cracked, and, on the nicest inspection, no crack could be perceived in the middle; but it appeared again in the same direction on the thicker part of the opposite side. This circumstance was applied to a bone of a varying thickness; and it deserves attention, though the analogy is not quite exact. Mr. Bell's directions for the operation are clear and accurate: with the best practitioners, he mentions the parts in which the instrument may be most safely applied; but, in emergencies, is not afraid to apply it to any part.

When bad symptoms come on after the operation, or when the deficiency of symptoms will not enable us to judge of the particular part injured, he gives in general proper directions for the management. In cases of compression and inflammation, we agree with him; but the symptoms of concussion and compression are often so much alike, that we wish the mode of practice was not very different. In what have *seemed* to be concussions, we have bled largely with success: our author thinks the effect of the shock to be that of debility; and, if the pulse sinks after a *gentle* bleeding, recommends stimuli. In the progress of the disease, if the cause be not soon removed, the pulse necessarily sinks, and we may mistake this progressive change for the effects of the remedy. Besides, even in compressions, a slight bleeding seems to do harm, while a large one evidently relieves. In fact, we have seen so much mischief from a neglect of bleeding, in affections of the brain, that we see with regret, any impediment thrown in its way. The distinction of Dr. Stark, p. 6, may probably be usefully employed on this subject; but free evacuations are certainly the safest plan. Mr. Bell talks too of gentle purging, without reminding the student that, in this torpid state, the most active purgatives alone will produce any effect. As, in our author's view, mistakes may arise from confounding the effects of concussion with those of extravasation, we shall transcribe his marks of distinction.

“So far as my observation goes, the most material difference which occurs between the symptoms produced by these two causes, concussion and compression of the brain, is met with in the pulse and in the breathing. In a compressed state of the brain, the breathing is commonly deep and oppressed, similar to what most frequently takes place in apoplexy; whereas, in patients labouring under commotion or concussion, the breathing is in general free and easy, and the patient lies

lies as if he was in a sound and natural sleep. The pulse is commonly soft and equal, and not irregular and slow, as it is usually found to be when the brain is compressed. In cases of compressed brain too, although little or perhaps no relief may be obtained from blood-letting, yet no harm is observed to occur from it; for in such circumstances it may be prescribed in moderate quantities, without reducing either the frequency or strength of the pulse: whereas in real concussion of the brain, the pulse, as we have already remarked, will frequently sink, and become much more feeble on the discharge of only eight or ten ounces of blood.

In fissures only, the operation is, he thinks, unnecessary; and, in some other diseases of the brain, it is at best useless; perhaps it would be injurious. The operation is described with great clearness; and the whole, as usual, is recapitulated. His conclusion is remarkably candid, and does his judgement and his liberality the highest honour.

We have seldom seen the diseases of the eyes treated of with so much success. The inflammation is opposed by the most active remedies; but, in a surgical view, the great object is couching. Mr. Bell prefers the depression of the lens to the extraction. To prevent its rising after the operation, he directs it to be carried by the needle towards one of the angles of the eye; and if it should arise in that situation, it would not impede the passage of the light through the pupil. The arguments for the preference are ingenuous; and that they are not quite satisfactory, may arise from a little prejudice we feel for Daviel's method. Mr. Bell's proposed improvements will certainly insure greater success, even to that operation. It chiefly consists in making the opening behind the lucid cornea, by which we avoid injuring the iris, and making a disagreeable cicatrix in the most useful and conspicuous part. We have little doubt of the wound healing with ease.

*The Genera Vermium exemplified by various Specimens of the Animals contained in the Orders of the Intestina & Mollusca Linnaei.*

*Drawn from Nature by James Barbat. 4to. 11. 7s. White.*

IN our Fifty-fifth Volume, page 424, we reviewed Mr. Barbat's *Genera Insectorum*; and he then proposed to continue his descriptions. The present work contains two orders of the vermes, viz. the intestina and mollusca: the remaining orders are the testacea, the zoophyta, and the lithophyta. It is probable that the author will include the whole, under the title of 'Testaceous Animals,' which he promises to describe in

in the third and last volume. We paid, in the account just mentioned, a due tribute to the attention of Mr. Barbut, but reprehended the quaint affected language in which the observations were delivered. This style still appears unchanged; perhaps it is, in his opinion, the 'brilliancy of wit,' which he distinguishes in Linnæus, though the greatest admirers of the Swedish naturalist never suspected that he possessed this qualification. Mr. Barbut ought certainly to have submitted his work to the care of a person more conversant in the English language than himself, and more accurate in his conceptions. The gordius does not, for instance, pierce the clay to make a passage for the water; but this is an effect resulting from the particular habits and constitution of the animal. We know that, in this instance, he translates literally from Linnæus; but a name is no sanction to error. There are many similar instances. The French version is not always clear; but it is free from the disagreeable affectation that deforms the English. 'Dedaignant au reste, d'errer au milieu des douces productions de science, sans faire connoître d'où il a exprimé les sucs, dont il a composé son miel.' This sentence has nothing reprehensible: the metaphor is allowable, and well preserved; but in English, it appears absurd and ridiculous. 'Scorning to roam among the sweets of science, without declaring the *melifluous genera*, from whence he extracted the *delicious nectar*.'

In the scientific part, we have less to blame; but the author is always anxious to discover the utility of the various insects to man. We think our own consequence is often too much exaggerated; and, in this immense scale of beings, though the first, we ought not to be the only objects of attention: besides, various animals are subservient to us in a secondary way, or by very distant connections, which we are unable to discover. Our author would be much distressed to find out the use of a *tænia* or an *ascaris lumbricoides*, which occur only in the human intestines; but there is great reason to suppose them connected with health, since they are common in the healthiest constitutions; and the diseases which they seem to produce, arise chiefly from their number, or the quantity of slime with which they are involved. While our author was treating of the *lumbricus*, he ought also to have explained the belt which distinguishes it from the *ascaris*. It is carefully preserved and properly represented in the plate.

In almost the only general opinion which Mr. Barbut has ventured to deliver, we think he is mistaken: we shall transcribe his own words.

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• The animals generally arranged under the order *Mollusca*, may not be perhaps so numerous as is commonly imagined, for this reason: many of them may be inhabitants of shells, whose usual abode is in the depths of the ocean, and may have been forced from their hold in an hostile manner, by animals more powerful than themselves; and having escaped the enemy, have risen to the surface, and by the hardening nature of the air, may have acquired a toughness to their skin, and likewise strength sufficient to float or swim, according to the several properties with which nature may have endowed them; in short, their external appearance strongly enforces my opinion, and most especially when we consider, that the animals of the *Mollusca*, bear so strong a resemblance in form and generic character to those inhabiting shells, and that they all are capable of contraction and expansion.'

He must be a very superficial naturalist, who will at once conclude that animals are of the same kind, because they resemble in form, or in a quality, which belongs to every species endowed with life; for contraction and expansion are performed always in living animals by a muscular power, and depends on the very general property of irritability. If his opinion were true, we should find also some of the mollusca with shells, beginning to form; since the involucrum is always the production of the animal, and we cannot suppose it an useless appendage. We find crabs (who annually, at least in some periods of their lives, shed their shells) in all the intermediate states, from a gelatinous body to one defended by a solid covering. Mr. Barbut's idea of an animal driving another from the shell, if not incorrectly worded, is erroneous. Shells are very generally inhabited by the same species, and are defended from external attack; so that when we find an animal in a shell not peculiar to it, we need not recur to the supposition of an hostile invasion, since forsaken shells are very numerous. The attack must therefore be made by an animal of the same kind, who must have been already dispossessed of his habitation by storms, or external violence.

We shall extract, as an entertaining specimen of this work, an account of some of the genera.

• The Slug, which begins the order, consumes the roots and leaves of plants, trees, &c. but affords food to many birds, as ravens, rooks, &c. and the Amber Slug has been recommended in consumptive cases. The *Laplysia*, wrapped round as it were with a cloak, is protected by the qualities nature has endowed it with, both on account of its foetid smell, and the painful tingling which follows the touch, feeds on sea-weeds, and is greedily devoured by the porpoise. Thus it plainly appears, that whatever poisonous qualities some ani-  
mals

imals may possess, with regard to mankind, they may nevertheless be harmless, and even nourishing food to other creatures; for a sailor happened to take a *Laplysia* in the Mediterranean, it gave him such instantaneous and excruciating pain, as to cause an inflammation, and the poor man lost his arm; and so sensible are the fishermen of the poisonous quality of the mucus, which oozes from its body, that they will not on any account touch it.'

'We now take a step rather remote from animals of a more active nature, when we enter upon a review of the *Ascidia*; an animal, whose functions are so extraordinary, as to appear only a few degrees removed from marine plants, constantly affixed to some body; its motion is imperceptibly slow, scarce making one inch in some hours, therefore never recedes far from its native spot; its life is taken up in continually receiving in its body the sea-water, and squirting it out again; the internal structure of the animal's mouth, is furnished with a number of minute papillæ, by which means it preserves from escape, in the act of ejecting the water, those animalcula, which constitute its nourishment.

'The *Actinia* affixes itself by a kind of peduncle, to rocks, oysters, &c. and displays its florescent head, in such manner, as more to resemble a flower, than an animal; the radii which adorn the head, as so many tentacula, by which the animal assumes and conveys its prey to its mouth, which is the centre of the flower as it were; at times they assume such various forms, as to be mistaken for animals of a different genus.'

'The *Terebella*, furnished as it were with an auger, pierces the rocks, and consigned by nature to its dark dwelling, rests in security, till the hungry crab, with its *cheliferous clasp* (le crabe vorace avec ses pinces), drags him from his lurking place, and devours him.

'The *Triton*, inserting its body in the holes of the rocks, which lie concealed under water, throws out its head and cheliferous tentacula, whereby it seizes the unwary prey, which happens to crawl or swim within reach. But he has likewise many enemies to encounter, the crab, *asterias*, cuttle, &c.'

The plates are, as usual, exact and beautiful; and the figures are encircled with different species of coral, which form an elegant border. The colouring is too vivid; and this will always happen, when natural history is degraded from the rank of an useful science to that of a pleasing picture-book. No colouring should ever be allowed which is not executed with care and correctness, under the eye of a master, who is willing to sacrifice even elegance and beauty to a just representation.



*Elementary Lectures on Chemistry and Natural History. Translated from the French of M. Fourcroy. By Thomas Elliot. With many Additions, Notes, and Illustrations, by the Translator. In Two Volumes. 8vo. 12s. in Boards. Robinson.*

OF a science, improving with great rapidity, it is necessary, at different periods, to ascertain the state, by collecting what has been hitherto discovered, and pointing out those subjects which are imperfectly understood, and may repay the labour of the discoverer by the importance of the acquisition. In England, a work of this kind was more wanted, since the foreign chemists have lately been very successful in particular branches of their art: the chemical mineralogy, which arose under the auspices of Cronstedt, has flourished very successfully under those of Scheele, Bergman, and some of the French chemists; whilst we can claim the laurel for the discovery of the different airs. Our labours have been extended through the continent, and received with avidity; but we have not been equally eager in appropriating the success of our competitors; and some English works, in this luminous period of chemistry, have been lame, imperfect, or erroneous. Mr. Kirwan's mineralogy, and the translation of Bergman's Essays, have been valuable additions to this science, from sources to which we could not have easily had access; and the present volumes will also materially contribute to our knowledge. The characters of M. Bucquet, and of his favourite pupil M. Fourcroy, are well known; we are not therefore surprised to find the lectures before us equally accurate, clear, and comprehensive. There are very few omissions or errors, and many circumstances either stated in a new light, or which have been hitherto little known. The notes of the translator are just and valuable: some of these seem to belong to the author; and no mark of distinction is subjoined. The translation itself is not executed with elegance: in a few places it is unintelligible; but, in general, we cannot impeach its accuracy.

The plan of these Lectures is simple, but not the most convenient. After examining what have been usually called the chemical elements, viz. fire, air, water, and earth, our author proceeds to the different subjects of the mineral kingdom, concluding with the mineral waters. He then considers the vegetable and animal kingdoms. The great disadvantage of his plan is, that by this artificial arrangement, he separates subjects the most nearly allied. After he has explained the combinations of mercury, v. g. with the mineral acids, he leaves its relations to the oils and vegetable acids, till he arrives at a very distant part of the work: and this is more inconvenient, as the aerial and marine acids are, in some re-

spects, very analogous in their action to the acetous. The chemical history of each subject should have been completed under its proper head.

It is not easy, in a work containing so great a variety of subjects, to give a regular analysis. We shall mention only some of the peculiar features, which seem to pervade the whole, and influence the resemblance, as well as a few of the most important observations. We had lately some occasion to hint at an hypothesis of Mr. Lavoisier, concerning the change which takes place in the combustion of combustible, and the calcination of metallic substances. This has been usually attributed to the escape of phlogiston, a principle incomprehensible in its properties, and which art has not been able to fix in a separate state\*. Its existence was first suggested by Stahl, and received with the rest of his reveries (for many of his chemical opinions, though very ingenious, deserve this title) by the elder French chemists; and from them derived to their successors, and to the English. Its escape seemed to increase the weight of bodies; and there was certainly a period when a principle, possessing specific levity, was not only hinted at, but attempted to be supported by argument. This apparent absurdity startled many respectable philosophers; yet a slight attention to the experiments of Dr. Hales soon explained the difficulty. In combustion and calcination, a great quantity of air was evidently absorbed; and Mons. Lavoisier seems inclined to abolish entirely, the supposition of a phlogistic principle, and to explain every appearance from the absorption of pure air only. Thus a calx is not a decomposed metal, but a combination, of which the metal is only one of the component parts. Sulphur is not a compound of phlogiston and acid, but a simple substance, capable of forming an acid when combined with pure air. We shall extract mons. Fourcroy's analysis of mons. Lavoisier's opinion.

\* According to Stahl, a combustible body is a compound, which contains fixed fire or phlogiston. According to his theory, combustion is only the separation of this fixed fire, and conversion of it into free fire; a separation which is manifested by light and heat. M. Macquer has greatly increased the probability of this system, by substituting, in the room of the phlogiston of Stahl, the existence of which can no way be demonstrated, light, which exists with the characteristic properties, and whose influence in the chemical phenomena is begun to be perceived.

\* According to the new doctrine, a body is only combustible, because it tends strongly to unite with pure air. Combustion is

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\* Unless Mr. Kirwan's opinion be established respecting the identity of inflammable air and phlogiston.

nothing but the act of that combination. This opinion is founded on the four following facts: 1. A body cannot burn without air. 2. The purer the air is, the more rapid the combustion. 3. In combustion there is an absorption of air, and an increase of weight in the body burnt. 4. Lastly, the body burnt contains the portion of pure air which it absorbed; and sometimes that air may be extracted by different methods, which will be more fully explained hereafter.

‘This doctrine which we have delivered, is very different from that which M. Lavoisier published, as an hypothesis indeed, in the memoirs of the academy for the year 1777. That chemist thinks, that pure or dephlogisticated air is composed of a base, of which he does not design the nature, and which is held dissolved by the matter of fire or of light. When a combustible body is heated in this fluid, such body decomposes the air by seizing upon its base; and then the matter of fire having become free, assumes all its qualities, and escapes with the characters, which distinguish it; namely, flame, heat, and light. According to this hypothesis, pure air is the true and only combustible body. But let us observe, that this manner of explaining combustion is as difficult to prove as that of Stahl, since it differs from Stahl’s only as to the place of the phlogiston or fixed fire, which M. Lavoisier admits to be in the body which is employed for kindling, whilst Stahl admitted it in the combustible body. It cannot then be admitted, but so far as the existence of the matter of fire in pure air can be demonstrated; and in that case, we shall find the same difficulties which occur in the theory of phlogiston. We likewise think that it ought to be observed, that the opinion of the simple fixation of pure air in the combustible body, seems to agree with every fact.’

The former hypothesis, of 1777, differs in a slight degree from the ‘new doctrine;’ and, though our author does not decide, yet the language of these volumes is entirely consonant to the latter. Since our first mentioning it, we have not lost sight of the opinion; and think, that in many respects, it is highly probable. It will explain the greater number of facts, with more consistency and probability, than the theory of Stahl: some however cannot yet be reconciled to it, particularly the reduction of lead by inflammable air, without leaving a residuum. In this case no air can escape, and a principle is evidently absorbed. There is great reason also to suppose, that it is the atmospheric air, and not its dephlogisticated portion, which combines with the calces; for the pure air is generally obtained only by the assistance of the nitrous acid, which powerfully attracts its noxious parts. If M. Lavoisier contends, that the air comes entirely from the acid, any absorption during the calcination is a gratuitous supposition.

sition. It is indeed not always, though in many instances, necessary.

This theory has induced our author to give a distinct place among the acids, to aqua regia, which has been usually supposed to be a very pure marine acid; the nitrous acid only serving to attract its phlogiston, so that it may more successfully diminish the union of this principle with the calx of the gold. M. Fourcroy allows the fact, but differs about the explanation. It is, he says, marine acid combined with pure air, and consequently a very different body, which deserves a particular enumeration. The calx of manganese is known to be very greedy of phlogiston; or, in other words, to contain a large proportion of pure air. Marine acid therefore, distilled from it, has all the properties of aqua regia. It will dissolve regulus of antimony, and in this way the butter of antimony is sometimes prepared, for the purpose of making emetic tartar, and is said to shorten the operation very considerably. The annotators seem to be mistaken, in supposing that Bergman recommends the glass of antimony for this purpose. We shall now leave this new theory for future consideration, and beg leave to return to our former term of phlogiston. Language has little effect on opinions; and, in this instance, we would wish to be understood to continue it only as a language to which we have been accustomed, till the system shall appear more unexceptionable.

The different subjects in this work are examined with accuracy: there are some subjects which we wish had been more satisfactorily explained; but as they have not hitherto been investigated with sufficient attention, we ought not to blame the author for the defect. The animal and vegetable substances are hitherto little understood; and much is now added, in these volumes, to our former knowledge: even the existence of manganese in the latter, a fact pretty well known, is not mentioned. It would amply repay the labours of a chemist, if he traced the changes of the food from its state of imperfect animalization, to the different forms which it afterwards assumes; from the simple combination of chyle to its first change into milk, when it seems only to have been enveloped by a more viscid oil, till it ultimately appears as a highly phlogisticated fluid, the bile, as an earthy salt, or an excrementitious fluid, with a similar acid. The phosphoric acid is now found in all the kingdoms of nature; combined with iron and lead, in the mineral; in the charcoal of mustard or wheat, and probably in the glutinous parts of farina, in the vegetable; but its great source is the animal kingdom. From  
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hence it may be sparingly derived, in obvious ways, to the others; but we have great reason to think, if its analogy to the marine acid be confuted, that it will be found a new form only of some well known body.

The natural history of these Lectures contains only so much of the science as is connected with chemistry. The appearance of the different bodies are well described; and their origin is in general traced with accuracy. We do not however agree with the author, in referring *all* calcareous earth to marine bodies. We shall insert his account of the different states; for if the premises are allowed, the account of the subsequent changes is clear and exact.

‘The waters of the sea, in positing themselves according to the laws of a motion, with which we are as yet unacquainted, are imperceptibly displaced, and change their bed. This fact is demonstrated in the learned theory of the earth, by M. le Comte de Buffon. As the waters quit a part of their bed, they expose to view the grounds on which their varied motions, so well explained by the celebrated man we have just now mentioned, have formed beds by the successive deposition of solid particles, or the skeletons of sea-animals. These beds are almost entirely filled with shells; the putrefaction of which very soon destroys the animal-gluten, and afterwards having lost their colours, the polish of their internal surface, and particularly their consistence, they become friable, earthy, and pass into the state of fossils. Hence the production of the shell-earths, and stones of the same nature.

‘These stones, being wasted by the rains, gradually lose the organic form, become friable, and very soon form a substance, in grains very little adhering, called chalk. When a shell-stone has acquired enough of hardness to be susceptible of polish, and when the shells which compose it have put on different colours, preserving their organization, it then constitutes the lumachelles. If the organization is destroyed, if the stone is hard and susceptible of polish, we give it the name of marble. The water which is charged with chalk, deposits it on all the bodies over which it runs, and forms incrustations. When it is filtrated through the vaults of subterranean cavities, it lets fall white and opaque depositions, formed of concentric layers, resembling pendulous conical masses. These are the stalactites. If these last, re-united into a great mass, and filling caverns, remain for a long time in the earth, they acquire a considerable hardness, and give rise to alabaster. Lastly, when the water, which holds a very fine and attenuated chalk in solution, slowly penetrates the stony cavities, it will deposit this substance, molecules on molecules; and these small bodies, approaching one another with the surfaces which will suit best, will assume a symmetrical and regular arrangement, and form hard transparent crystals, resembling those of the saline substances.

We call these calcareous spars. This, then, is the last degree of attenuation of the chalk, the state in which it is the most distant from animal origin, and in which it most resembles a true salt.

Mons. Fourcroy however assumes a position too gratuitous ; for the strata of calcareous earth, though not primæval, or deeply lodged, are yet in extent and appearance so much like those of other earths, as not to require a different source. In its union with flints, which calcareous earth frequently incrusts, it has almost certainly been deposited from water ; and, in its state of marine shells, is not soluble in that fluid. It is a little unphilosophical also, to assume a second cause : the earth is not formed by sea-animals, but only secreted in another form. It must have previously existed, or it could not have made a part of these animals.

The merit of the translation we have already spoken of ; the notes, we have observed, are accurate, and the language in which they are delivered, is clear and philosophical ; but we think they should have been more numerous. The annotator, for he seems a different person from the translator, might, in more instances than one, have added to the work, and corrected mistakes. Monsieur Fourcroy congratulates himself that he had established the relative affinities of the vegetable and mineral alkalies to acids, in the same order as Bergman ; but the annotator ought to have remarked, that it had been done long before by Dr. Black : and, when he says that alkaline air is heavier than common air, he should have corrected the error. It is well known, that when properly prepared it is somewhat lighter, and has actually been employed to fill balloons. On the subject of the bile, he might have made some important additions from Dr. Maclurg's Experiments. But these volumes are still very valuable : we have long wished for a similar publication, and could hardly have expected it with fewer errors or defects.

*Pieces Morales & Sentimentales de Madame J. W. C—t—se de R—f—g. Small 8vo. 3s. 6d. Robson.*

*Moral and Sentimental Essays, on Miscellaneous Subjects, written in Retirement, on the Banks of the Brenta, in the Venetian State. By J. W. C—t—se of R—f—g. 2 Vols. Small 8vo. 5s. Robson.*

Though the language of these two works differ, the contents are nearly the same : neither can be properly styled a translation ; for the author, to whom both languages are familiar, seems sometimes to have written in one, and sometimes in the other. But, while we are not informed of the ori-

Original, we think the French language more her own. The chief defects in this version are in the idiom; but they are neither frequent nor important: in the English, we find 'preluding a preface,' 'facilities,' 'hard,' instead of harsh or severe; 'minutious;' 'illustration,' for advance to dignity; 'ennuied,' and many similar blemishes.

'As to the subjects of the work, we cannot give a better idea of them, than by comparing them to that number and diversity of articles which form a lady's dress. No author is without a certain degree of coquetry: nor ought he to be, as his object is to please: but coquetry has ever been thought less becoming in men than in women. The choice of every thing that can contribute to ornament, is allowed to the sex without constraint; the arrangement subject to no rules: it is caprice, under the direction of taste, which chuses, and which places its objects always in an agreeable manner, and conformably to the end it happens to have in view. But as the dress of a woman, how great soever the variety of the articles of which it is composed, has always a determined character, such as a national dress, a court dress, a hunting dress; so to this work, considered as a dress of the mind or understanding, we may assign the character of sentiment. When this character, in itself so interesting, animates the whole, and diffuses its warmth throughout, in a manner so spontaneous and natural as we observe it to do in these pieces, it ever furnishes an agreeable kind of reading; although the subjects treated may be old, trivial, or even fantastic. The wild flights of the imagination, the intricacies of metaphysical discussion; even the shafts of satire, of irony, and persiflage, have, under this amiable pen, a tincture of that character. That frank and ingenuous manner, too, so conspicuous in the following pages, adds new value to their ton of sentiment; inasmuch as we are the more disposed to believe it true, and to delight in it; just as, in society, we prefer the attachment and conversation of those persons, whose characters announce feeling, frankness, and simplicity.'

We have chosen the words of the very intelligent editor, because, with the allowance of a natural, perhaps a laudable, partiality, they properly characterise the work. It must be acknowledged, that some of the observations are trifling, and a few erroneous: that the heroine of each little tale is the author, who should rather have chosen to convey her sentiments through the mouth of another: that, in some instances, perhaps from errors of the press, a sentence is unintelligible; yet, with all these defects, there is a neatness in her general

style, brilliancy in her expressions, and precision in many of her ideas, which always attract attention, and generally please. We shall make no apology for extracting her opinion on presentiment: it is curious and new, if not just.

‘ I one day consulted the abbé T——, professor of astronomy in the university of P——, upon my foible. This man, full of candour, freely confessed to me, that he respected the doctrine of presentiment, and did not refuse it all his credit. “ Every point of futurity,” said he, “ has a point in the past, which corresponds with it by an equal distance from the present. The death of my son may be as far distant from the present moment, as the death of my father, which is past. The chain of events is pre-established: it is the faculty of memory which informs us of the past: why should there not exist another faculty, capable of indicating to us the progression, or series of future events, the same as in geometry, where the first term of a progression determines any other term we wish to arrive at? or, indeed, why should there not exist another sort of faculty, which I will call the harmonic vibration of correspondence between events, by which an accident should make its proper impression upon us, and then, by a distant echo, announce to us other accidents analogous in the future?”

If we were to appreciate the different essays, we should assign many of them a considerable rank, on various accounts. The ‘ Conjecture on a Discovery,’ and the ‘ Essay on Convulsions,’ are humorous, by combining subjects which are seldom supposed to be analogous. ‘ What will not please every one,’ was very pleasing to us, as it contained a very natural unaffected relation of the impression of superstitious terrors, and of the means by which the mind regained its natural liberty. We would tell the story; but it should be related in no words but those of the lively author. The essay ‘ on Laughing,’ should be read by every admirer of lord Chesterfield; and that on the ‘ Occult Quality,’ by which the countess means the force with which we feel what is true, in opposition to the feeble conviction produced by sophistical arguments, would be highly useful to casuists and philosophers.

The definition of an Apologue is clear and exact: the apologue, which it serves to introduce, contains the rise, progress, and decline of the papal power. It has some merit; but, in this walk, an inferior genius might have excelled: we wish that our author had soared above it. The Venetian novel deserves considerable commendation. The style is new, the situations uncommon, and the whole is conducted with  
con-



confirmate address. The conclusion is singularly happy. The young hero, for it is the author's intention to celebrate heroic actions, though the actors are in humble life, is a young gondolier. He loved the sister of one of the same occupation, but whose family had been distinguished by prizes gained in different regattas. A similar victory was the only means to gain the bride; and her brother, a veteran in these lists, agreed to row with him. His eagerness was extreme, for on the event depended his happiness. In the moment of trial however, by an unskilful movement, his antagonist first gained the picket: every exertion could not make up for this loss; when, in the moment of victory, the conqueror fell into the water. Our hero, by one strenuous effort, gained the goal, and seized the first and second prize. Returning instantly, he rescued his rival from the waves; and, though the first honour was his due, scorned to owe it to accident, but gave it to his competitor. His delicacy and generosity gained a victory which he had not expected: they gained every heart, and the hand too of his mistress.

The author's name was Wynn. Her father was of a protestant house in Wales; her mother a Greek woman, and a zealous catholic. Her father's long residence in Venice gave rise to her connection in marriage with the late count of Rosenberg, the imperial ambassador to the Republic. Her mind therefore, early cultivated with uncommon care, received a brilliant polish from the conversation of people of the first rank, and most distinguished talents. We have indeed said, that these Essays are not free from faults; but these are at least equalled by their merits; and we have little hesitation in recommending them as instructive and entertaining.

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*Report of Dr. Benj. Franklin, and other Commissioners, charged by the King of France, with the Examination of the Animal Magnetism, as now practised at Paris. Translated from the French. With an Historical Introduction. 8vo. 2s. Johnson.*

IT is a just and beautiful remark of the translator of this Report, that truth is uniform and narrow; error endlessly diversified. In the field of truth, the mind is passive; in that of error, she expands and displays 'all her boundless faculties, all her beautiful and interesting extravagancies and absurdities.' The physiology of the body is supported and explained by the deviations of nature, and the ravages of disease; from the eccentricities, from the diseases of the mind, we may consequently expect that its natural state should be illustrated. Credulity is its native vice: before it has been fortified by

reason, and the judgment matured by experience; every thing new and uncommon interests and fixes its attention; but there is a period when novelty must, in some degree, cease; when increase of knowledge shall detect imposition, and more frequent examination destroy the adventitious ornaments, derived from inexperience. In this state the mind, active to deceive itself, or open to the deception of others, explores new worlds, or yields to confident assurances. Religion and medicine are then the prolific sources of its wanderings: the one in its nature incomprehensible by the human understanding, the other rendered so by the artifices of designing impostors. It is observed by the translator, that a good ecclesiastical history would be the history of the wanderings of the mind; that of quacks would be no less interesting, from the same source. Animal magnetism, which is our present object, is only a new form of old errors.

It may be proper to premise, for the sake of some of our readers, that Mesmer, a German physician, the pupil of Hehl, who applied the loadstone in the cure of diseases, soon forsook the plainness of his doctrine, and attempted to employ the magnetical fluid in a more general way, without the assistance even of a magnet. His system was opposed in Germany, rejected by the academy of Berlin, but found an asylum in Paris. The lively imaginations of the French were attracted by his confident pretensions, and contributed to establish his fancies. It must be obvious, that no better term can be applied to the efficacy of a power which has no source; and which, when actually employed, seems to have little, if any, effect. The rage for this remedy was so great, that it attracted the attention of the parliament. Mesmer refused to submit to an examination; but his pupil Deslon, who seems to be an honest bigot, suffered the commissioners to make every necessary enquiry. After the most minute and careful examination, after varying the experiments in almost every possible way, it appeared, beyond even the reach of a cavil, that the whole was an imposition; and the impression, if any, was chiefly on the imagination.

Mr. Thouret, in his work, entitled 'Doubts and Enquiries respecting the Animal Magnetism,' traces this kind of imposition to Paracelsus, from whom it descended to Van Helmont, Goelenius, Burgravius Libavius Wirdig, Maxwell, Santanelli Tentzel, Kircher, Digby, and Boërl. In the last century, Greatrix, a gentleman of Ireland, pretended to the faculty of curing diseases by the touch; and his attestations were signed by Boyle, Wilkins, Muchcott, Cudworth, and Patrick: lamentable instances of credulity even in enlightened minds!

Within

Within our own memory, Gassner has made similar attempts with success; for confident pretensions will always succeed.

The system, from Paracelsus to St. Kenelm Digby, was the following. The universal spirit was supposed to be diffused in every part, and to be the bond of union between the most distant bodies; but, independent of this, there was a vital spirit, belonging to each individual, diffused through all its parts. Any portion therefore of the individual, as containing its share of the vital spirit, might be acted on, and similar effects would be felt in the body, through the medium of the universal spirit. Hence were derived the salutary powers of Sir Kenelm Digby's powder of sympathy for wounds, and Paracelsus' cure for different diseases. We shall extract a receipt of this kind, from an old work, by a genuine scholar of this famous quack, printed in 1611, '*Concerning the Lamp of Life.*' The warm blood of the patient must be boiled with the shell and yolk of an egg; this must be mixed with some meat, and given to a hungry dog, to whom the complaint, be it dropsy, gout, or jaundice, will be conveyed. We ourselves knew a person who constantly believed that her daughter's ague was conveyed to a dog, by boiling her urine with a particular herb, which the dog was forced to drink.

The practice however soon became more refined. It was no longer necessary to have any part of the person who was to be tormented or cured. Likeness in clay, or other materials, was sufficient; and *this* opinion is not, even now, entirely destroyed.

But we need not trace any farther these monuments of superstition.—Mr. Mesmer has refined, even on the modern dæmonology; and sometimes by pressure, frequently pointing only in a particular direction, produces sensible evacuations, called crises or convulsions. We lately read of a similar effect in an author, who seemed to know nothing of magnetism: in a medical work, as an instance of sympathy, we were told of a lady's fainting by a 'gentleman's inadvertently squeezing her hand.' We think the age and situation of the parties might have been added, and then it would probably not have appeared miraculous.

We cannot give a more complete idea of Mr. Mesmer's proceeding, and the foundation of its effects, than by extracting some of the reflections of Mr. Thouret.

'That the touch frequently employed in his method for a considerable time, and on regions extremely sensible, such as those of the stomach, is of itself capable of producing effects, by communicating a vivid impulse to the nerves of the plexuses which are there situated, and which have an intimate connection

tion with the whole nervous system ; that authentic records present us with a great number of facts of this kind, and that in consequence, the sensations, which originate in the application of the touch, do not prove the existence of a separate fluid or agent.

‘ That the heat produced by the hand, and the motion communicated to the air, may occasion very strong impressions upon a person extremely sensible, and whose fibres are in a state of convulsion, without these impressions being calculated to prove a new agent.

‘ That in subduing the imagination by solemn preparations, by extraordinary proceedings, by the confidence and enthusiasm inspired by magnificent promises, it is possible to exalt the tone of sensible and nervous fibres, and afterwards to direct, by the application of the hands, their impulse towards certain organs, and to excite in them evacuations or excretions, without there resulting any addition to the sciences, either of philosophy or medicine,

‘ That the partisans of the animal magnetism do not produce what they call crises, that is, a state of convulsions, but in subjects extremely irritable, extremely nervous, and above all, in women, whose sensibility has been already excited by the means we have described.

‘ That among these disposing causes, particular stress is to be laid upon the presence of a person already in a state of convulsion, or ready to fall into that state ; that just as an organ attacked with spasmodic affections, easily propagates these affections to the other organs, in like manner are they transmitted from one man to another ; that we have therefore no reason to be surprised, if in the halls, where the pretended magnetical operations are performed, spasms, and even convulsions are diffused with extreme alacrity ; and that history furnishes a great number of facts, of convulsions propagated through whole villages or towns, in a manner still more astonishing than that of which the animal magnetism presents us with an example.

‘ That history has also transmitted to us a great number of cures operated by fear, by joy, or the commotion of any violent passion ; which proves beyond controversy, the power of nervous influences over diseases.’

We are convinced that the chief, if not the whole, of Mr. Mesmer's power, is by the influence of the imagination only. We are sufficiently acquainted with its effects in producing or curing diseases ; and have seen from it, consequences equally extraordinary. The effects of pressure alone, even on the hypochonders or the epigastric region, are little known. The plexus of nerves can scarcely be affected, on account of the intestines yielding easily to it : and we have no reason to think the ovaria acutely sensible, if they were not, in a great degree, defended by the superincumbent parts. The relation  
of

of Kaaw Boerhaave, respecting the convulsions in the orphan-house at Harlem, is well known. In France, we have found similar effects. The influence of the imagination in the cure of agues, fevers, epilepsy, and scrophula, is frequently observed; for no one will suppose that the strokings of an Irish gentleman, or even of a descendant from a Tudor or a Stuart, can have great effect in the last instance. If we examine more accurately, we shall find the imagination insensibly affected in a variety of instances, usually unobserved; and, when we have once perceived its general power in minute circumstances, we shall not refuse credit in greater ones, when it is intended to be affected by a magnificent apparatus and pompous promises; when these are assisted by artful delusions, and the example of interested confederates.

We cannot conclude our account without the warmest encomium on the extreme accuracy of the commissioners' experiments, and the masterly execution of their Report. The translator has also performed his task with propriety.—'Accesses' instead of paroxysms, and 'actual' for present, with a few similar blemishes, are the only exceptions which we have discovered. We scarcely however understand him when he says that the French 'have lately seemed to take the lead of us in philosophical discoveries.'—We think the English can equal even 'the celebrated and incomparable discovery of the aerostatic globe,' if we regard utility and convenience, instead of splendid spectacles. The public are already in possession of our opinion on this subject; and whatever reputation we may have lately lost in politics, our pretensions to the more sublime and useful parts of philosophy are certainly unrivalled.

*The Domestic Physician; or Guardian of Health. By B. Cornwell, M. L. 8vo. 6s. 6d. in Boards. Sold by the Author.*

**B.** Cornwell, M. L. !—We are entirely unacquainted with him or his title.—The race of M. D's are numerous; the LL. D's are not uncommon; the M. B's too sometimes occur. We must not surely refer to the inimitable Foote's Major Sturgeon, where Lint translates P. L. and M. D. by *PLAGUY LYARS*, and *MURDEROUS DOGS*; and so, 'quod prius ordine verbum, posterius faciamus.' That would be too severe. May it not be *medicinæ licentiatius*? The latter word is of doubtful authority; but we know that it occurs in Martial, though in no very reputable sense. Let us turn to our dictionary: here it is; from Martial too. '*Licentiatius, qui licentiam habet ad consequendam dignitatem supremi tituli,*

tali, idem ac *Promagister mellodidascalus*.' Reviewers are jurymen in literature; they ought never to avoid the most difficult and intricate discussions; for, at last, both science and the author will profit by their labours. This difficulty, which struck us in the threshold, when once elucidated, is the strongest proof of the author's modesty: he comes to us with an amiable diffidence, not dictating *ex cathedra*, as a master, but hinting in a subordinate character: to come nearer to the subject, not as a doctor, but an apothecary, perhaps even an apothecary's apprentice. There are indeed licentiates of a higher class in the Royal College, yet they never assume the title, since they are previously doctors of physic.—Let us return then to our apothecary; for, though he has given us power, by his own confession, we would not degrade him lower: it is our duty to countenance and to raise a modest author, not to depress him.

The intention of the licentiate is to instruct private families in the symptoms and cure of every disease. We might doubt the propriety or the possibility of the plan; but, since a spirit of quackery is very generally diffused, we must admit both the one and the other. It remains only to examine the execution. If we were to except against every thing which is left incomplete and imperfect, our criticism would be indeed extensive; but there is one kind of imperfection so common to all writers of this kind, that we cannot avoid mentioning it. They describe genera of diseases not species, artificial associations in some instances, and abstract ideas in others. It indeed often happens, that there is only a single species belonging to each genus; but various, and almost innumerable complications, frequently occur, which no rules can teach the *unexperienced* practitioner to distinguish or relieve. We well know the usual conduct on these occasions: the slightest resemblance is caught at with eagerness, as an accurate description; the name of the disease is ascertained, and the prescription aimed only at the word, instead of its proper object.

This apothecary is by no means full in his account either of the causes or of the cure; but he is very full of hard words, and almost unintelligible terms. A cough, a simple cough is well known: is it better understood when defined to be a '*concussory* and *elisory* motion of the breast?' Will the fond mother, eager for the welfare of her child, be able to comprehend the following reasoning? or, if she does comprehend it, and is inclined to follow this future teacher, this mellodidascalus, must she not deprive her child of almost every kind of nutriment?

‘ Thus

‘Thus food too salt, viscid, austere, acid, and pinguious, too plentifully taken, and not well concocted, produce a greater increase of acido-viscid crudities. So likewise in summer, prejudice is done by crude and immature summer-fruits, which commonly conceal, in the contexture of their particles, a latent acid, which, by irritating and spasmodically afflicting the fibres of the intestines, may excite diarrhæas, dysenteries, gripes, and other symptoms, particularly at the approach of autumn.’

Even innocent milk, if coagulated, is hurtful; our licentiate knows not that it must always be coagulated, in order to be digested; but, to prevent a misfortune so tremendous, prescribes a powder of ‘crabs eyes, egg-shells, the root of florentine orris, saffron, the seeds or oil of anise, spermaceti, cinnabar, and a *solution* of crabs eye.’ In what proportions? Here we are left in total darkness; for even in the appendix, where we occasionally meet with a faint ray, we find not the least illumination of this dreary waste. Again,

‘I justly and with very good reason, esteem remedies of mercury, however prepared, especially when given to sucking infants in powder, and in considerable and repeated doses, to be deleterious and highly prejudicial; partly, because, by their gravity, they firmly adhere, in several places, to the folds of the stomach and oesophagus: and partly, because, by the addition of a more acrid bile, and corrosive acid, they assume a more violent and corroding nature.’

This is only nonsense, and therefore harmless; but our author proceeds in his censures on other metallic remedies, particularly aurum fulminans. Aurum fulminans! and for children too.—We recollect that Banner gave it for a ptyalism in consequence of mercury, and for the colic; but his practice has never, so far as we know, been followed. Perhaps the pro-magister found it in some of the authorities which he so carefully quotes; such reading as was never read, and such authors as were scarcely ever heard of. These are absurdities which can do no great harm, though they swell the volume’s price a shilling; but the following passage, and it is not a singular one, is too bad even for the apothecary’s apprentice.

‘When the matter is too tough and viscous, the business then is, on the contrary, to *incrassate*, and reduce it to a soft pulpy body. This is effected by liquorice-root or juice, with *gum arabic*, *figs*, *starch*, together with all the sulphureous medicines.’

Though

Though the author quotes frequently from cotemporary authors, as Buchan, Motherby, &c. we will not even suspect that he has taken very liberally from them. They undoubtedly sometimes err; but our present licentiate is only sometimes in the right. They have frequently a meaning; but the M. L. under consideration only blunders about it.

*The History of Great Britain, from the first Invasion of it by the Romans under Julius Caesar. By Robert Henry, D. D. Vol. V. 4to. 2l. 1s. Cadell.*

**D**URING a period of several years, historical compositions have formed a principal part of British literature: and amidst these, the history of our own country has been treated with a degree of excellence, more likely to preclude than excite competition for several succeeding years. Dr. Henry undoubtedly began the present work under circumstances far more advantageous to those prospects which stimulate the exertion of a writer; though, by means of a comprehensive plan, calculated to afford variety of information, he has been able to render a new History of Great Britain not only acceptable, but in a certain degree interesting, to the public. To prevent such a work from becoming too voluminous, to which it had a natural tendency, the author, in the narrative of civil and military transactions, is often obliged to substitute brevity for minuteness of detail; but whilst fidelity is scrupulously preserved, few readers will regret that conciseness which affords room for the admission of collateral subjects, both gratifying to curiosity, and particularly illustrative of the genius and manners of former times.

The period of history, comprised in the present volume, abounds with extraordinary events; and to develope them in a satisfactory manner, from the imperfect or contradictory accounts which have been transmitted by different writers, requires all the penetration of a historian. Dr. Henry approves himself sufficiently industrious in his researches; nor can we forbear from acknowledging, that he discovers an equal degree of judgment in weighing the evidence, and either admitting, rejecting, or leaving doubtful, alleged facts, upon the principle of historical probability.

This volume comprehends the civil and military history of England, from the accession of Henry IV. in 1339, to the accession of Henry VII. in 1485. We shall lay before our readers the author's character of Henry the Fifth, as a prince, whose extraordinary qualities give a lustre to this part of the English history;

Thus



Thus died, in the prime of life, and in the full career of glory, Henry V. one of the best, bravest, and most fortunate princes that ever wore the diadem of England. His person is thus described by one who had often seen him. "In stature, he was a little above the middle size; his countenance was beautiful, his neck long, his body slender, and his limbs most elegantly formed. He was very strong, and so swift, that, with two companions, without either dogs or missile weapons, he caught a doe, one of the fleetest animals. He was a lover of music, and excelled in all martial and manly exercises." Some of our contemporary historians have heaped upon this prince, with a liberal but injudicious hand, all the praises they could collect, expressed in the most extravagant and bombastic language. It may, however, be affirmed, without the least exaggeration, that he possessed an excellent understanding, which enabled him to form his designs with judgment, and to choose the most effectual means, and favourable seasons for carrying them into execution. His heart was as warm as his head was cool, and his courage equal to his wisdom, which emboldened him to encounter the greatest dangers, and surmount the greatest difficulties. His virtues were not inferior to his abilities, being a dutiful son, a fond husband, an affectionate brother, a steady and generous friend, and an indulgent master. His youthful excesses proceeded rather from redundancy of spirit, than depravity of heart. His intolerance and severity to those who dissented from the established system of religion, was the vice of the age rather than of the man. The injustice of his attempt to obtain the crown of France cannot be denied; but the probability of its success, from the distracted state of that kingdom, was too great a temptation to be resisted by a young, warlike, and ambitious prince. In a word, Henry V. though not without his failings, merits the character of an amiable and accomplished man, a great and good king.

The fluctuations of the English government, subsequent to the death of this prince, are such as lead a historian into the depths of political intrigue, and surprise him, in every step of his progress, with unexpected revolutions of fortune. Dr. Henry steers his course through this turbulent period by the best authorities of historical information; and relates, with due impartiality, the contention between the houses of Lancaster and York. His faithful regard to truth is evident from the following character of Richard the Third.

Richard III. if we may believe many of our historians, was a kind of monster, both in mind and body. "The tyrant king Richard (says John Rous of Warwick, his contemporary) was born at Fotheringay in Northamptonshire. Having remained two years in his mother's womb, he came into the world with teeth, and long hair down to his shoulders." What he adds, is probably more agreeable to truth—"He was of a low stature, having

having a short face, with his right shoulder a little higher than his left;" a picture which was wrought up in absolute deformity by subsequent historians, but contradicted by the testimony of an eye-witness of undoubted credit. That he possessed personal courage in a very high degree, his enemies could not deny, though they confessed it with reluctance. "If I may venture to say any thing to his honour, though he was a little man, he was a noble and valiant soldier." He was much admired for his eloquence and powers of persuasion, which were almost irresistible, especially when they were aided by his bounty, which, on some occasions, was excessive. His understanding was certainly good; but he was rather a cunning than a wise man, impenetrably secret, and a perfect master of all the arts of dissimulation. Ambition was his ruling passion. It was this that prompted him to supplant his helpless nephew, in order to seize his crown; and when he had formed that design, he seems to have stuck at nothing to secure its success. That he was guilty of the cool deliberate murder of the earl Rivers, the lords Grey and Hastings, because he apprehended they would oppose his attempt upon the throne, cannot be denied. That he murdered also his two nephews, Edward V. and the duke of York, or one of them, I do not affirm, because I cannot prove it; and all the accounts that are given of the circumstances of the death of these two princes, I confess, are liable to great objections. But though all these accounts may be false in some particulars, the principal fact may be true; and it is certainly not improbable.

Next follows the civil and military history of Scotland, from the year 1339, to the accession of James IV. in 1488. This is also one of the most distracted periods in the Scottish history, but particularly distinguished by the virtues and the vigorous administration of the unfortunate James the First, respecting whom, the sensibility of the historian has often occasion to be excited. The following anecdote, in the reign of James the Third, we lay before our readers, as not being generally related by historians.

\* King James, having raised an army to oppose this formidable invasion, directed his march towards the borders; and about the end of June, encamped at the town of Lauder. At that place a cruel and unexpected tragedy was acted, which threatened the ruin of the king and kingdom. Archibald Douglas, earl of Angus, was at this time the most powerful nobleman in Scotland, having obtained from the crown many of the estates of the exiled earl of Douglas. He was married to a daughter of the late regent Robert lord Boyde; and though he was not involved in the ruin of the Boydes, he secretly resented the severity with which they had been treated, and was deeply engaged in the treasonable schemes of the duke of Albany. This potent earl had a private meeting in the night  
with

with the noblemen and gentlemen of his party, in the church of Lauder, to consult about the destruction of the royal favourites, as the most effectual means of distressing the king, and defeating the present expedition. At this meeting one of the members repeated the following fable. "The mice (said he) held a meeting, to consult about the best means of preserving themselves from the cats. One mouse proposed to hang a bell about the cat's neck, that, by its ringing when the cat moved, they might have warning of their danger. But when it was asked, who will bell the cat? none of them had so much courage." The earl of Angus, taking the hint, cried out—I will bell the cat; which procured him the nickname of Archibald bell the cat ever after. Having formed their plan, they left the church; and, attended by a body of armed men, entered the royal tent early in the morning, and there seized six of the king's most favoured confidants, viz. Robert Cochran an architect, master of the works, sir William Rogers a musician, Thomas Preston, James Hommel, William Torfesau, and one Leonard. John Ramsay of Balmain, a young gentleman of a good family, was saved, by clasping the king in his arms. After upbraiding the king in very severe terms, for spending his time in such unworthy company, they carried off the six unhappy victims, and hanged them over the bridge of Lauder. The king, struck with consternation at this cruel outrage, retired, with his uncle the earl of Athol, and some other noblemen, to the castle of Edinburgh, or (as some historians report) was carried thither, and guarded as a prisoner.

The circumstances attending the death of this prince, afforded our author an opportunity of introducing another anecdote; but he has contented himself with mentioning only that the king was slain by some of the pursuers. In drawing the character of the same prince, the historian, we likewise observe, has withheld from exhibiting his reputed attachment to the occult sciences.

The Second Chapter contains the history of religion in Great Britain, during the period of the civil and military history comprised in the volume; and this chapter, like the preceding, is generally of such a nature as can afford little pleasure to the historian. It opens with an account of the burning of sir William Sawtre; which, being the first instance of martyrdom in England, we shall relate in the author's words.

"The archbishop, impatient to put this cruel law in execution, even during the session of parliament that made it, brought sir William Sawtre, rector of St. Oswyth, London, to his trial for heresy, before the convocation of the province of Canterbury, at St. Paul's. The chief heresies of which he was accused were these two, that he refused to worship the cross, and that

that he denied the doctrine of transubstantiation. The unhappy man, in order to avoid the painful death with which he was threatened, endeavoured to explain away his heresies as much as possible. He consented to pay an inferior vicarious kind of worship to the cross, on account of him who died upon it. But that gave no satisfaction. He acknowledged the real presence of Christ in the sacrament; and that, after the words of consecration were pronounced, the bread became the true spiritual bread of life. He underwent an examination of no less than three hours on that subject, February 19, A.D. 1401; but when the archbishop urged him to profess his belief.—“That after consecration the substance of the bread and wine no longer remained, but was converted into the substance of the body and blood of Christ, which were as really and truly in their proper substance and nature in the sacrament, as they were in the womb of the Virgin Mary, as they hung upon the cross, as they lay in the grave, and as they now resided in heaven;” he stood aghast, and, after some hesitation, declared, “That, whatever might be the consequence, he could neither understand nor believe that doctrine.” On this the archbishop pronounced him an obstinate heretic, degraded him from all the clerical orders with which he had been invested, and delivered him to the mayor and sheriffs of London, with this hypocritical request, that they would use him kindly; though he well knew, that all the kindness they dared to shew him was to burn him to ashes. He was accordingly burnt in Smithfield, and had the honour to be the first person in England who suffered this painful kind of death, for maintaining those doctrines which are now maintained by all the Protestant churches.

About the same time, the primate published a decree in all the churches of his province, forbidding the barber-surgeons to keep their shops open on the Lord's day, which, by a strange mistake, our author observes, he described in this manner: “The Lord's day, viz. the seventh day of the week, which the Lord blessed and made holy, and on which, after his six days works, he rested from all his labour.”

The reign of Edward IV. was sullied by an exertion of the prerogative, in a manner the most unwarrantable and pernicious.

Edward IV. soon after his accession, being earnestly desirous of the support of the clergy, made a most unwarrantable stretch of his prerogative in their favour, by granting them a charter, which rendered them almost entirely independent of the civil government, and left them at liberty to do what they pleased. By that charter, he took upon him to dispense with the famous statute of premunire, which no intreaty could ever persuade the parliament to repeal; and he discharged all civil judges and magistrates to take any notice of any treasons, murders, rapes, robberies, thefts, or any other crimes committed by archbishops, bishops,

bishops, priests, deacons, or any person in holy orders. Nay, if any person apprehended for a crime pretended that he was in orders, though no such thing had ever been heard of, the civil magistrate was commanded to deliver him to the bishop, or his official, to determine whether he was in orders or not; which opened a door for the most gross abuses. So shameless were the claims of the clergy in those times, and so extravagant were the concessions of princes in their favour, when they stood in need of their assistance!

Many of the clergy (if we may believe archbishop Bourchier) made a very bad use of this exemption from civil authority. That prelate, in a commission he granted to his commissary-general to attempt some reformation, says, that many of the clergy, both secular and regular, were ignorant, illiterate blockheads, or rather ideots; and that they were as profligate as they were ignorant, neglecting their cures, strolling about the country with bad women in their company, spending the revenues of their benefices in feasting and drinking, in fornication and adultery.

This infamous act, which emancipated the clergy from the civil jurisdiction, was confirmed by Richard III. and remains an indelible example of the profligate concessions made by princes, with the view of supporting their authority on a tottering throne.

The Third Chapter contains the history of the constitution, government, and laws of Great Britain, during the same period. This part of the work is comprised in a narrow compass; for, as our author justly observes, the kings and people of both the British nations were at this time so much engaged in war, that they paid less attention to the improvement of the constitution, government, and laws of their country, than they probably would have done, had they enjoyed more tranquillity. It is certain that irregularities, in the exercise of some of the most essential privileges of the people, never prevailed in a greater degree than during the present period. The number of members sent to parliament was extremely fluctuating, and seems to have depended much on the pleasure of the sheriffs of the several counties. There is the clearest evidence, that the sheriffs of the same county sent precepts to, and made returns from, sometimes more and sometimes fewer boroughs, without any reason for their conduct; that some boroughs to which precepts were sent, never elected nor returned any members, and some only once, twice, or a few times; that sheriffs, in their returns, sometimes reported, that certain boroughs to which they had directed precepts, had made no returns, and no excuses for their disobedience; and others had excused themselves by pleading poverty; for at this time the practice

of paying wages to members of the house of commons, prevailed in all parts of England.

The courts of law in England continued nearly on the same footing in this as in the former period; but the number of judges in the courts at Westminster was not yet fixed; as, in the reign of Henry VI. there were sometimes five, six, seven, and at one time eight, judges in the court of common pleas. For the information of our readers, we shall extract Dr. Henry's observations relative to the salaries of the judges.

‘The ancient salaries of these judges were very small, viz. to the chief justice of the king's bench, L. 40 a-year; to the chief justice of the common pleas, L. 40; and to each of the other judges in these two courts, 40 marks. Henry VI. by letters-patent, granted an additional salary,—to the chief justice of the king's bench, of 180 marks, or L. 120, which made his whole salary L. 160, equivalent to L. 1600;—to the chief justice of the common pleas, of L. 93 : 6 : 8, which made his whole salary L. 130 : 6 : 8, equivalent to L. 1300;—to each of the other judges, of 110 marks, which made the whole salary of each judge L. 100, equivalent to L. 1000 at present. Besides these salaries, each judge had a certain quantity of silk, linen-cloth, and furs, for his summer and winter robes, out of the royal wardrobe, or an equivalent in money. All these judges were also justices of assize, for which each had a salary of L. 20, equivalent to L. 200. What other perquisites or profits were annexed to their offices (which they held only during pleasure) I have not discovered. The winter-robes of each judge cost L. 5 : 6 : 11½, equivalent to L. 53. 10s.; and his summer-robes L. 3 : 3 : 6, equivalent to L. 31. 15s. The annual salary of the attorney-general was only L. 10, equivalent to L. 100. He was allowed only one robe, worth L. 1 : 6 : 11, equivalent to L. 13. 10s. All the judges and the attorney-general presented a petition to the king in parliament, A. D. 1439, complaining that their salaries were too small, and ill paid; and that, if they did not obtain redress, they would be obliged to resign their offices. It doth not appear that they obtained any addition; but an act was made, that they should be regularly paid, twice a-year, by the clerk of the Hanaper. When a judge was admitted into his office, he took a solemn oath, “That he would not receive any fee, pension, gift, reward, or bribe, of any man having sute or plea before him, saving meat and drink, which should be of no great value.”

Dr. Henry observes, that in the present, as well as in former periods, the corrupt administration of justice was a subject of great complaint, and was owing to several causes, besides the insufficient salaries, and precarious situation of the judges. The custom of maintenance still prevailed; by which great numbers of people confederated to defend each other in all their

their claims and pleas, whether just or unjust. It was usual with these confederates to oblige all the peaceable people around them to purchase, by contributions, a security from vexatious law-suits. The exemption which the clergy claimed from the jurisdiction of the civil courts, rendered it almost impossible for the laity to compel their spiritual guides to do them common justice by a legal process. The great number of sanctuaries in all parts of the kingdom, protected many from the punishment due to their crimes, and from the payment of their debts. Perjury was a reigning vice in this period; and we are told by the prelates and clergy of the province of Canterbury, in convocation, A. D. 1439, that great numbers of people had no other trade but that of hiring themselves for witnesses, or taking bribes when they were on juries.

But if justice was not well administered in this period, it was not owing to a scarcity of lawyers or attornies. It appears, in particular, that there was at this time no less than two thousand students of law in the inns of chancery and of court.

The English subjects, in those times, were not more oppressed by acts of mutual injustice, than by the rapacity of their sovereigns. The following passage affords a curious account of the manner in which this was sometimes exerted.

‘When all the ordinary and extraordinary revenues of the crown proved insufficient to defray the expences of a war, our kings had recourse to various expedients, some of them neither honourable nor lawful, to procure money. Edward IV, for example, not only carried on trade like a common merchant, but also solicited charities, which he called benevolences or free gifts, like a common, or rather like a sturdy beggar. Having expended all the aids granted to him by parliament, in preparing for an expedition into France, A. D. 1475; he sent for all the rich lords, ladies, gentlemen, and merchants, of whom he had procured a list, received them with the most captivating affability, represented the greatness of his necessities, and earnestly intreated them to grant him as great a free gift as they could afford, accompanying his intreaties with smiles and promises, or frowns and threats, as he saw occasion. Being a handsome, gallant, courteous, and popular prince, he was exceedingly successful in his solicitations, particularly with the ladies, and collected a greater mass of money than had ever been in the possession of a king of England.’

The second section of the same chapter recites the history of the constitution, government, and laws of Scotland, from 1400, to 1488. Our author observes, that the circumstances of Scotland during the first twenty-four years of the present

period, were no better in this respect than they had been in the former. The nominal governors were no successive regents, who made no new laws, and had not authority to enforce the old. The progress of improvement in Scotland received a severe check by the murder of James the First, who, during the short time he reigned, produced a remarkable change in the civilization of his country. But by the factions which prevailed in the minority of his son, and the turbulence of some powerful chieftains, the affairs of the nation soon relapsed into anarchy.

In the Fourth Chapter is delivered the history of learning in Great Britain, during the period of which the volume treats. The subsequent quotation may give our readers a sufficient idea of the esteem in which learning was held in England at this time.

'If learning was not despised in this period, it was certainly very little esteemed or honoured; nor was it the most effectual means of procuring preferment even in the church. We meet with frequent complaints of the universities of Oxford and Cambridge to parliament—that all the most valuable livings were bestowed on illiterate men or foreigners, by papal provisions, by which private patrons were deprived of their rights, and the best scholars in the kingdom were left to languish in indigence and obscurity, nay, were sometimes driven to the necessity of begging their bread from door to door, recommended to charity by the chancellors of the universities in which they had studied.

'Two of these learned mendicants, we are told, came to the castle of a certain nobleman, who, understanding from their credentials that they had a taste for poetry, commanded his servants to take them to a well, to put one into the one bucket, and the other into the other bucket, and let them down alternately into the water, and to continue that exercise till each of them had made a couplet of verses on his bucket. After they had endured this discipline for a considerable time, to the great entertainment of the baron and his company, they made their verses, and obtained their liberty.'

This period however gave birth to some colleges in England; and in Scotland, to the universities of St. Andrew's and Glasgow.

In the Fifth Chapter, the author takes a view both of the useful and the pleasing arts in Britain, during the above mentioned period. Agriculture was then at so low an ebb as to be frequently the cause of famine. The taste for founding and building monasteries and churches did not prevail so much in this as it had done in some preceding periods; owing partly, as our author observes, to the unhappy state of the country,



try, and partly to the doubts which had been raised in the minds of many persons of all ranks, by Wickliffe and his followers, concerning the merit of those pious but expensive works. The arts of spinning, throwing, and weaving silk, were brought into England in this period, and practised in London by a company of women. The art of war was now cultivated with greater assiduity than any other; and whilst almost all the peaceful arts languished, that of printing, the most important towards the civilization of mankind, was introduced into England during the present period.

The Sixth Chapter contains the history of commerce, coin, and shipping in Great Britain. Notwithstanding the intestine wars which prevailed in England during this period, the circle of commerce was rather enlarged than contracted.

The Seventh Chapter treats of the manners, virtues, vices, remarkable customs, language, dress, diet, and diversions of the people of Great Britain, during the period so often mentioned. The most remarkable change which our author observes through this period, was a great diminution of the numbers of the people in every rank (except that of beggars), by the devastation of the country. Chivalry, though now declining, was not yet extinct. Perjury, as has been already observed, was at this time extremely common with people of all ranks; and the English were remarkable among the nations of Europe for the practice of swearing in conversation.

On the whole, the period included in the present volume is to a historian one of the most intricate that occur in the British annals. Dr. Henry however has not shrunk from the duties of the difficult province which he had assumed, but continues to exert himself in his extensive and laborious researches with such patient industry, and unwearied perseverance, as render his work a valuable repository of historical information.

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*The Life and Adventures of John Christopher Wolf, late principal Secretary of State at Jaffanapatnam, in Ceylon; together with a Description of that Island, its Natural Productions, and the Manners and Customs of its Inhabitants. 8vo: 4s. Robinson.*

THE island of Ceylon has now more than ever become an object of attention to this country; and a knowledge of its natural history must therefore prove interesting to the public. This island is situated between the 6th and 10th deg. north lat. and between 101 and 104th east long. It is in length two hundred and twenty miles from north to south: its breadth is various, being in some places a hundred and twenty, in other seventy-two, and at Jaffanapatnam no more than

twenty-eight miles. Ceylon is one of the most important of the Dutch possessions, not only on account of the cinnamon; but other commodities, and a considerable revenue arising from different sources.

In the account of so remote an island as Ceylon, the veracity of the voyager is a matter of the utmost importance; and if we may judge by intrinsic evidence, the present narrative bears every mark of fidelity. Mr. Wolf has been an early adventurer in life. Good principles and a promising disposition seem to have been the means of procuring him from strangers that friendship and confidence which soon raised him to a conspicuous station in Ceylon. To question the truth of such a man, especially of one who relates his own history with an air of ingenuousness, would betray an unjustifiable want of candour. For these reasons we cannot hesitate in respect of the credit due to the author of this narrative; and whilst his evidence affords satisfaction, we are glad to find that it is employed, for the most part, on such objects as may prove interesting to the public curiosity.

Without giving any detail of the author's history, or mentioning the steps by which he rose to be secretary at Jassanapatnam, we shall confine ourselves to what is most remarkable in the natural history of Ceylon.

Mr. Wolf gives the following account of the cinnamon-tree.

'The costly spice, known by the name of cinnamon, particularly thrives here; it not being found in any other part of the globe, of so fine and good a quality. This noble plant appears to thrive better when self-sown, than when propagated by culture. In this case, the crows, who are very fond of eating the red and quick-tasted fruit of the cinnamon-tree, are the best gardeners. For along with the fruit they swallow the kernels, and scatter them thus undigested every where with their excrements, by which the soil is, at the same time, manured; and the seed shortly after striking root, springs up out of the earth. On this account, no one dares to shoot, or otherwise kill a crow, under a severe penalty. Of this cinnamon, the Dutch send out yearly near a thousand bales, each bale weighing eighty pounds neat. This article of commerce they get mostly for nothing, it being given in to them by the people of the country, who perform this service by way of vassalage for their lands. More of it would be got if the trees could produce fresh bark; but they always wither directly after they are stripped of their bark. It may easily be imagined, however, that the additional growth must be considerable, when so great a quantity perishes every year. The growth of the tree is not every where alike, but stronger and weaker according to the difference of the soil. When the plant has time given it, it grows

grows to a tolerable sized tree; but the larger this is, so much the worse is the bark; this kind of bark being only used for the distillation of oil of cinnamon. The report, that the cinnamon-tree may be smelt from afar, is without foundation. I have often rode through plantations of this spice; without finding any reason to countenance such an opinion. At the season of the year when this drug is delivered in; all the vassals, who are here called cheleasses, meet together, when each of them has a piece of coarse linen given him, as a present from the company. On this occasion they perform a comedy, in the country-fashion, which is really worth seeing.

Pepper is also a produce in some parts of the island, but is not so good as that which grows on the coast of Malabar. The cardamom will not thrive well in Ceylon; but coffee is much better adapted to the soil and climate. Tea, and some other sorts of elegant aromatics, are not to be found here; and though some trials have been made to rear them, the practice has proved unsuccessful. Rice, on the contrary, thrives well, and three crops of it may be obtained in the year. Ginger is said to grow in Ceylon as common as grass in Europe. Medicinal roots and herbs are to be found in the island in great quantities. The inhabitants, we are told, are well skilled in physic, and are in particular good surgeons:

The European esculent vegetables grow tolerably well in Ceylon; such as carrots, white-cabbage, cauliflowers, onions, fallad, &c. and cucumbers are said to be rather better than in Europe. Amongst the trees which grow wild in Ceylon, the tamarind-tree is remarkable for its great size, and the vast extent of its branches.

Many other trees and vegetables are mentioned by our author, but we shall now proceed to his account of the animals. That which he delivers of the elephant is as follows:

‘I begin with the largest of them (animals) viz: the elephant, of which, I have seen several six ells high. That they are not all of this size, it is needless to inform the reader. A young cub does not measure more than one ell in height; but goes on thus, increasing proportionably, till it arrives at its full growth. This animal is not only the largest, but likewise the most acute of any. Had it the gift of speech, it would be found equal to many of our dull race of blockheads, in point of understanding. At least, such is the opinion and open declaration of all those who are thoroughly acquainted with the nature and properties of the elephant, and have had to do with him for a number of years. Even in the business of generation he imitates man; and, indeed, considering the particular frame of the females, it could not be otherwise. For this purpose, the male makes a pit, or hollow in the ground, and assists his con-

fort to lay herself on her back; and, in case he finds her perfectly compliant and agreeable, very complaisantly helps her up again after the business is finished, (for she cannot possibly rise of herself) by throwing his trunk round her neck. But if she at first *stood shilly-shally*, and gave herself prudish airs, he then even lets her lie, and goes away about his business.

How long the female goes with young, is not as yet ascertained. I have been at some pains to come at the truth of this point, but without success. That this animal is capable of arriving at a great age, I am very well assured, from what I have myself observed in the case of a tame one, which was caught on the island, in the year 1717, and was still living in 1768, and was even then used with advantage for the breaking in of the wild elephants that were just caught.—They keep together in great droves; and every male has his peculiar female belonging to him, which none of the others dare approach. On the other hand, the males always quarrel and fight together, till each has his appropriate female. If it so happens that one of these is beat out of the field, and is obliged to go without a consort, he instantly becomes furious and mad, killing every living creature that comes in his way, be it man or beast. One in this state is called a ronkedor, and is a greater object of terror to a traveller than a hundred wild ones.

The author relates many curious particulars concerning this animal, not hitherto mentioned by natural historians: but for these we refer to the work.

In some small islands contiguous to Ceylon, there is an excellent race of Arabian horses, which run wild; but the peasants of Ceylon make no use of the horse. What they use instead of it, for the cultivation of their lands, is the wild buffalo, a heavy clumsy animal, but of an uncommonly hot nature, and very apt to lie down in the water. Here are great numbers of the species of animal called by our author the elk, but perhaps more properly the antelope oryx of Dr. Sparrman. Herds of deer may also be seen in different parts. The inhabitants use little more of the flesh of this animal than the loins, which, after being dried in the sun, they lay upon a gentle charcoal fire; and then beating it between two stones, until it is tender, they eat it with a little salt by way of relish at tea-time. 'The Europeans, says the author, call the venison prepared in this manner, *apefle*, an appellation for which I can find neither rhyme nor reason.' If Mr. Wolf could give no *reason* for this appellation, we should certainly not expect any *rhime* for it, either from him or the translator.

Beside the animals above mentioned, Ceylon contains many others, such as the chamois goat, the hare, the jackall, the tyger, the porcupine, the crocodile, the sloth, &c. with a variety

variety of snakes. We must not omit to present our reader<sup>s</sup> with the author's account of the rolleway.

‘ I now come to the description of a kind of animal, which most of the pagans look on as sacred. I mean the ape, which comprehends a great many species, all very different from each other. They live more amongst mankind than in the great forests; as the garden-fruit, especially the sweet fig, suits their taste much better than the wild produce of the woods. In the whole island there are three sorts of them; but in the kingdom of Jassanapatnam no more than one, viz. the rolleway. This is an animal with a long grey coat, and full as big as the blood-hound; in other respects not differing from the small ape, so well known in Europe. From this hallowed race, which roam up and down the country in large parties, the peasant often receives great damage, as they are sometimes apt to take rather too great liberties; robbing him of his fruit, his rice, and his punat; notwithstanding which, he lets them alone, never pursuing the thief that has robbed him, but, on the contrary, feeling very much hurt, whenever he sees an ape wounded or killed by an European; nay, the very hearing of such an event would grieve him greatly. Neither is the rolleway ignorant, that he has free leave and liberty with the peasant: in consequence of which, he visits him even in his bed-chamber, but there he is not quite so welcome, on account of the wife and daughter; for he is very well known not to be overscrupulous with respect to certain matters: every other liberty is readily allowed him. It frequently happens, that the rolleway shall snatch up a child of one of the black inhabitants, and run up a tree with it; and after having admired it for some time, will bring it down again unhurt, laying it gently down on the same place whence he took it: a circumstance that forebodes good fortune to the child, and is accordingly a most welcome event to the parents. When a female is delivered, the young cub is examined and admired by all the apes present, who sit in a ring, and hand it round to each other. When this ceremony is finished, the mother gets her child again, and lays it to her breast, on which while it suckles, it takes fast hold with its hands, more like a human creature than a brute. When one of these animals has climbed up a tree, in order to avoid its pursuers, and still finds itself exposed to their fire, it dodges up and down, and backwards and forwards, between the leaves and the branches; and, if the tree luckily happens to be lofty, they may take their aim, and shoot till they are weary, before they hit their mark. But, in case that one or two of them are shot, and fall to the ground, then there does not remain another ape on any one of the trees all round the spot, but they all come down, and endeavour to save themselves by flight. With the hounds of this country it is not possible to get at them; for these are afraid of them and run from them. When this creature finds that it cannot conceal  
itself.

itself in the tree, it is wont to rid itself in great haste of all its natural incumbrances, which occasions a scent not very agreeable. During the time of my being on the island, and not before, they found that the hide might be tanned, and used for shoes; a discovery made by a Russian tanner. When the rolleways are found in the open fields, it is constantly observed, that some of the largest of them are placed as sentinels, who, as soon as they perceive the least danger, set up a loud cry by way of signal, in consequence of which, the whole herd takes the alarm, and scampers away. And, now they have got into the way of making use of this animal's hide, I will just mention the best method of catching him. They take a good heavy cocoa-nut, with its rind on, and at one end of it make a hole, large enough for the monkey to get his paw into it; they then loosen a part of the kernel with a knife, and so let it lie. The inquisitive, and at the same time liquorish creature, finding this nut, examines the hole, and through it spies the loosened kernel; eager to come at this, he sticks his paw into the hole, and laying hold of the loose piece of kernel, his fist thereby becomes so much enlarged, that he cannot get it out again; but, having hooked his claws pretty tight into the part he has hold of, the nut remains hanging to his fore-foot. In this manner it is impossible for him to run very fast, and consequently he falls into the hands of his enemies.'

Amongst the fowls, peacocks are very common in Ceylon; the stork is also an inhabitant, and never emigrates any more than the swallow, which is to be seen in the island through the whole year. Here is likewise the turkey, the eagle, the falcon, a beautiful kind of heath-cock, the goose, and many species of the duck; but the island cannot boast either of the swan or the nightingale.

On this island are found many different petrifications, with crystals of the finest water, corals that grow in the shape of trees, and pearl-muscles, or oysters. These oysters require fourteen years to ripen, and produce perfect pearls.

We shall next lay before our readers an account of the weather in Ceylon.

As for the weather, it is of a very different constitution in Ceylon and the adjacent countries, from what it is in Europe. The division into summer and winter takes place likewise in Ceylon, although it be so very hot in this climate. In the middle of October the north wind begins to appear, and bursts forth with a dreadful storm of thunder and lightning, insomuch that the earth and the air seem all on fire with gleams of lightning, which appearances last some days. With all this comes a rain, the like of which, with respect to violence, I have never yet observed elsewhere, which lasts till the middle of December. This is properly called the rainy, or winter season; for

for it will sometimes be so chilly at this period, that one shall perfectly quake with cold. About the middle of April, the north wind, which hitherto had blown continually, sometimes with great violence, at other times more gently, and again at other times so as hardly to be perceived, takes its leave with just such another dreadful storm as it came with. Directly upon this, the south wind blows with such force, that one finds it very difficult to keep on one's legs. In sandy districts it raises clouds of light sand, so that one is obliged to keep one's eyes, nose, and mouth shut. This south wind remains till the middle of October: other winds there are not. I recollect, that at the rainy season, by reason of the heavy rains, I have not been able to see sun, moon, or stars, for fourteen days consecutively: from this it may be imagined, what a quantity of water must be brought by this rain. The inhabitant of this country gets his quota almost all at once; with this portion he must be content for himself, family, and cattle: for which reason he is obliged to be a very great economist of it, and for this purpose he makes use of the dykes, which he has both natural and artificial in his fields, besides large vats, which are hollowed out of a tree with a red-hot iron, and contain more than a hundred runlets of water. In places where there is a free and uninterrupted passage for the air, the climate is tolerable for an European. But in such spots as the wind cannot arrive at, or thoroughly ventilate, by reason of their being situated in the neighbourhood of high mountains or thick forests, the air is very unfriendly to any new-comer from Europe. There are, however, many pofts, which it is necessary to occupy with Europeans: some of these wretches I have often seen (not without compassion) in the most miserable condition, who, were it but possible, would willingly have been in their own country, begging at other men's doors; but a poor sinner is often made to repent in this country, the crimes he has committed in his own.

With regard to the interesting, and apparently faithful account of Ceylon, contained in this work, we have only to add, that, though it exhibits the honest plainness of an unaffected voyager, it might have been more elegantly translated.

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*The History of the Public Revenue of the British Empire. By John Sinclair, Esq. 4to. 10s. 6d. in Boards. Cadell.*

**T**HIS respectable writer has formerly exerted his political abilities on subjects of great national importance; and we cannot but feel much satisfaction at finding him now engaged in another enquiry, for which, by an indefatigable spirit of investigation, and historical knowledge, he appears to be particularly well qualified. A History of the Revenue of the British Empire, executed with judgment, is a work not only calculated

to trace the various resources of the nation, but to ascertain the wisdom or imprudence of government at the different periods of its existence. Mr. Sinclair informs us, that when this work was undertaken, he had no conception of the immense difficulties attending it. The acknowledgement is entirely conformable to repeated experience in every laborious enquiry. In the original formation of any plan, the mind at first attends only to the principal objects, and hastens in imagination to the accomplishment of its design, without being able to comprise in a general view the various obstructions which must retard the progress of the writer, when he prosecutes the subject in detail. But, whatever may have been our author's original ideas of the labour before him, he has not receded from the undertaking, when, on a nearer inspection of its constituent parts, they presented themselves to his consideration in their natural magnitude and importance; for a volume of this kind, begun in August last, and published in the present month, affords no doubtful proof of the ardor with which the author has been animated.

The work commences with an account of the modes made use of by the ancient Britons for raising a public revenue; after which our author considers the revenues of Britain under the Roman government. In the next chapter he treats of the revenue of England, during the government of the Saxons; taking afterwards a general view of the ancient revenue of the crown of England, as consisting of crown-lands, forests, mines, right of seignior, escheage, quit-rents, aids, relief, wardships, &c. Our author concludes his account of the various exactions during this period with the following observation, which is doubtless justified by the most faithful historical evidence.

‘Such were the burdens to which the inhabitants of England were formerly subject. It is certain, that they did not exist at once; and that sometimes one mode of exaction prevailed, which, in process of time, was abandoned in favour of another. But, whatever the *laudatores temporis acti* may say, it must be evident to every impartial person, that our ancestors had great reason to be dissatisfied with their political situation, even in the article of taxation; and perhaps the present era is, in that, as well as in many other respects, as desirable a period to live in, as any that can be pointed out in the history of this country; our additional weight of taxes being fully compensated, by a more extended commerce, by improvements in every branch of science and of art, and by great accessions to our wealth, our security, and our freedom.’

In the fifth chapter the author treats of the revenue of England under the government of the Norman line. He observes that the amount of William the Conqueror's income has been much



much disputed. Ordericus Vitalis says, that, besides all the casual profits of his feudal prerogatives, he enjoyed a revenue of about four hundred thousand pounds *per annum*. This sum is thought perfectly incredible by two celebrated historians, Hume and Voltaire. The former remarks, that a pound of silver in that age contained three times the weight that it does at present; consequently four hundred thousand pounds then were equal to one million two hundred thousand pounds of our specie; and as any given sum of money would then purchase about ten times more of the necessaries of life than at present, the Conqueror, according to this calculation, must have enjoyed an unincumbered annual income, equal to nine or ten millions of the present currency. Voltaire, though he converts the Conqueror's income only into five millions of modern money, also contends that ancient writers must have been greatly mistaken in their account of his wealth. For the revenue of England, he says, including Scotland and Ireland, does not yield so much, if we deduct what is levied for payment of the national debt. On this remark Mr. Sinclair justly observes, that the subtraction of any thing on account of the interest paid to the public creditors, is a very inaccurate position, because it arises from taxes levied on the subject, as much as any other part of the national income.

Our author is of opinion, that the two above mentioned historians have carried their scepticism too far, in the instance which has been specified. He thinks it probable that both of them would have been equally incredulous, had they been told thirty years ago, that Great Britain and Ireland could have raised in the year 1784, a revenue of above fourteen millions *per annum*; and that it is impossible totally to discredit the accounts of Vitalis, a historian who was born only nine years after the Conquest, and consequently must have enjoyed better access to information than any modern can pretend to. Our author's opinion is strongly countenanced by the subsequent observations; that, without such an income, it would have been impossible for the kings of England to have lived with such magnificence; to have bestowed such liberal donations on the church; to have carried on so many public works; to have engaged in so many expensive wars; and, after all, to have left behind them so great treasures.

In the sixth chapter our author delivers an account of the revenue of England, under the princes of the house of Plantagenet. In this period the public revenue was first increased by the introduction of customs, a species of taxation which Edward I. had observed in foreign countries, during his expedition to Palestine. From the Conquest to the time of this prince,

prince, the usual mode of levying money for the extraordinary expences of the crown, was by scutages, or pecuniary commutation for personal service; but a variety of circumstances, our author observes, contributed to render such a system no longer effectual.

'Scutages, says he, were levied in proportion to the number of knights fees which each person possessed. But, in consequence of the fluctuation of private property, and of many evasions which it was impossible to foresee, and difficult to check, joined to the inaccurate manner in which the rolls of knights fees were kept, it became impracticable to ascertain the number of fees with which each person ought to be charged. And when a small number was once accepted of, it was considered to be a binding precedent for the future. Thus the crown was deprived of the military services of its vassals; was defrauded of the compensation to which it was justly entitled; and was reduced to the necessity of providing some other means for the public defence. Some scutages, however, were levied during the reign of Edward: indeed so prudent a monarch could never have entirely relinquished an old and established mode of taxation, until he had known, by experience, that a more productive system of revenue could be carried into effect.'

It appears from our author's detail, that under the government of the house of Plantagenet, a considerable progress was made in the knowledge of finance. At this period was discovered the necessity of converting military services into pecuniary aids. Taxes began to be laid upon personal as well as real property. The customs formed a considerable branch of the public revenue, and the clergy were compelled to furnish contributions for the public service; nor was the sanction of the pope any longer accounted necessary for that purpose.

The seventh chapter contains an account of the revenue, during the government of the houses of Lancaster and York. The bloodshed and confusion which prevailed during this period, admitted not of sufficient attention to any branch of the civil department. But through the whole of the contest between the two houses, there is not one instance of any tax being imposed without the sanction of parliament, the different parties finding it necessary to sacrifice to the interest of the nation the privileges which had been usurped by former sovereigns.

In the eighth chapter the author traces the history of the revenue, under the government of the house of Tudor. How much it was increased by the exertions of Henry VII. are sufficiently well known; nor were the means practised for improving it by Henry VIII. more justifiable. From the Conquest to the reign of this prince, the old standard fineness of the

the coin had been generally preserved ; and, though some base metal had occasionally been mixed with it, the adulteration was gradual, and consequently less pernicious. But Henry, besides enhancing the price of gold and silver to a considerable degree, violated so far the faith of a sovereign as to coin base money, and to order it to be current by proclamation. Amongst the methods which he practised for raising money was also that tyrannical resource named Benevolence, or an ' Amicable Graunte ;' under which false title he extorted great sums by compulsion, and punished such of his subjects as ventured to oppose those illegal and oppressive exactions. Even the great princess Elizabeth is said to have exacted, every new-year's-day, above sixty thousand crowns, by granting licence to Roman Catholics and nonconformists, exempting them from the penalties which the law imposed upon such as neglected to attend the public service of the established church. She also continued the practice, of which many examples had been shown by her predecessors, of extorting loans from her subjects, and of imprisoning such as dared to refuse. She afterwards indeed repaid them when it was in her power ; but the money that was borrowed lay in the hands of the crown, without interest, and consequently such loans were productive of considerable loss to those from whom they were exacted. This reign is distinguished for the last example in the English history, of a subsidy being rejected by the sovereign, when offered by the people.

' During the government of the house of Tudor, says our author, some progress was made in finance ; the advantages of public credit, and of a strict adherence to public faith, were discovered by the politic and sagacious ministers of Elizabeth ; and the customs, and other branches of the revenue, were rendered more productive. But the period is particularly remarkable, for laying the true foundation of the poverty of the crown, and of the consequent power and importance of the commons. When the emperor Charles V. was told, that Henry had suppressed the monasteries, he judiciously remarked, that the king of England had killed the hen that laid him the golden eggs. In fact, the opulence of the church was always a sure resource for the crown to look up to. The clergy could hardly evade any burden the king thought proper to impose. When, in addition therefore to the royal domains, the property of the church was squandered, the sovereign had nothing to depend upon but the assistance of the nation at large, through the medium of its representatives ; and Elizabeth's successors found, that such assistance could not be procured, without redressing the grievances of the people, and agreeing to such farther security for their rights and privileges, as they thought proper to demand.'

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The ninth chapter traces the history of the revenue from the accession of the house of Stuart, to the Revolution in 1688. By the alienation of the royal domains, and the destruction of that ancient source of revenue, the great wealth and property of the church, which, after having been seized by the sovereign, was wasted, the revenue of the crown suffered henceforth a vast reduction; and, as our author observes, the royal income diminished, not only in nominal amount, but in real value. After the discovery of America, specie became daily more plentiful in every part of Europe; and the consequence was, such an addition to the price of all commodities, as rendered the same revenue much less efficient than formerly. Under the princes of the house of Stuart, the value of subsidies also declined. In the eighth year of Elizabeth, a subsidy amounted to one hundred and twenty thousand pounds: in the fortieth it fell to seventy-eight thousand; and its produce in 1640, was no more than fifty thousand pounds. Subsidies were a tax upon income; and our author justly observes, that as the wealth of the country was rapidly increasing, no reason can be assigned for the decrease of the produce of this tax, but the fraudulent practices of the assessors, who wished to cultivate the favour of the people by moderate assessments, or who countenanced every means of evasion, to diminish the value of the grant, when the government happened to be unpopular.

Concerning the expences incurred during the time of the common-wealth, Mr. Sinclair observes, that it is impossible now to make up an accurate statement of them, in consequence of the great fluctuation and instability of government, and of the frauds practised by those to whom the custody of the public money was committed. This period was distinguished by a very extraordinary tax, which, during the six years it was levied, is said to have produced six hundred and eight thousand four hundred pounds. Every person was obliged to retrench a meal a week, and to pay into the public treasury the money which was saved by this retrenchment.

To the long parliament the nation is indebted for the introduction of taxes by excise. This impost was at first laid upon liquors only; and it was solemnly declared, that at the end of the war, all excises should be abolished. But the contest continuing longer than was expected, this obnoxious mode of levying money was extended to bread, salt, and many other necessary articles. The excise on bread and meat was afterwards repealed.

With respect to the financial history subsequent to the Restoration, our author observes, that it is distinguished by two im-

important alterations ; namely, the manner of imposing taxes on the clergy, and the mode of granting public supplies.

‘ Among the many valuable privileges, says he, which the church had acquired in the dark and superstitious ages of modern Europe, that of an exemption of taxes was not the least considerable. Under the pretence that their power was derived from heaven ; and that their estates were the property of the Deity, and consequently sacred and inviolable, they denied all subjection to temporal authority, and refused to contribute in common, with the public at large, to the necessities of the state. The subsidies they paid were, either in consequence of bulls from the pope, whom they considered as their spiritual, and, indeed, real sovereign, or imposed by the authority of their own ecclesiastical superiors, to whom they professed, in a subordinate degree, canonical obedience.

‘ Edward I. it has been already observed, was the first monarch of England who compelled the clergy to pay taxes, not only without the authority, but in avowed contradiction to, a bull from Rome ; and for many years after, the convocation was regularly assembled at the same time with the parliament, for the purpose of granting supplies. This practice continued until the long parliament assumed the government of the country : their religious principles were so adverse to all distinct or independant ecclesiastical authority, that no convocation was suffered to meet ; and the income and possessions of the church were included in those monthly assessments or taxes on real and personal property, which were levied during the existence of the commonwealth.

‘ After the Restoration, the hierarchy and the rights of the convocation were again re-established. But the clergy were afraid that the privilege of taxing themselves would prove a burden instead of being a benefit. They remembered that during the reigns of the former monarchs of the house of Stuart, considerable grants were perpetually expected from them ; and that such was the influence attending the clerical patronage of the crown, that much heavier taxes were imposed upon the property of the church, than on the estates of the laity. They were not a little anxious, therefore, to be put upon the same footing as to taxation and representation, that they were in the time of the long parliament ; and accordingly it was agreed upon, that the revenues and property of the church should continue to be included in the monthly assessments which were imposed ; and that the parochial clergy should be allowed to vote at elections, though incapable of being elected. These terms the parliament assented to, as they proved the means of acquiring a considerable accession to its power of taxation ; and rendered the crown still more dependant upon the only body of men by whom its wants could in any degree be supplied : nay, as an additional boon, two clerical subsidies which had been granted by the convocation were remitted.

‘ The grants of parliament were originally considered, merely as temporary aids to assist the sovereign in defraying the expenses he was subject to, for the benefit of the public; and unless the commons happened to entertain at the time any particular jealousy of the crown and its ministers, the sum granted was commonly left entirely to their disposal. But after the restoration, not only more frequent grants were demanded, but, in consequence of the poverty to which the crown was reduced, parliamentary grants had become really necessary almost every year. It was impossible, however for parliament, distrusting not only Charles's economy, but his regard for the interest of his kingdoms, to vest considerable sums of money in such unsafe and improvident hands: it was, therefore, thought requisite to specify the purposes for which each sum was voted. Thus appropriating clauses came to be introduced. At one time, the jealousy of the commons was carried to such a height, that they sent a bill to the house of lords, containing a clause by which the money thereby granted was ordered to be paid into the chamber of London. But the peers would not suffer so great a stigma on the king and his ministers to pass into a law. The mode of appropriation, though in the main right, was nevertheless attended with unfortunate consequences. It abated the jealousy of the commons. It was natural for them to imagine that grants, thus strictly appropriated, could not be diverted to other purposes; and they became negligent in making the most essential of all enquiries, namely, how the public money was actually expended. At one time, committees of the house of commons, and at another, commissioners have been appointed to examine into the public accounts: but the wound has never been probed to the bottom; and public profusion will never be fully checked, until not only estimates, which are too often fallacious and unintelligible, but also accounts of the manner in which the supplies granted were really spent, are regularly laid before parliament.

Having given an account of the First Part of the present work, we shall reserve the Second for a subsequent Review. The origin of the funding system, which occurs in the period immediately following, forms a new epoch in the history of finance; and to relate the progress of it with clearness and precision, through its numerous and important stages, requires great accuracy in the historian. Mr. Sinclair however is possessed of every endowment, both of industry and ability, for such an undertaking; and with his judgment in the choice and determination of the weight of authorities, he prosecutes the subject with the most satisfactory information and remarks.

*Observations on the Manufactures, Trade, and present State of Ireland. By John Lord Sheffield. Part the Second. 8vo. 5s. Debrett.*

**I**N our last Review we gave an account of the First Part of this work; in which lord Sheffield delivered many general observations on the plan which ought to be pursued for settling the commercial intercourse of Great Britain and Ireland. In the Part now before us, his lordship examines more minutely the present state of Ireland, enquiring not only into her several manufactures, but the principal articles of her trade with the different parts of the world. He begins with the linen, which is doubtless the first manufacture of Ireland.

Lord Sheffield is of opinion that there is an opening for a very great extension of this trade; and the prospect, he observes, ought to quicken the industry of the inhabitants. How much this manufacture, so easily learned, and least of all subject to the variations of fashion, might contribute to national prosperity, is evident from the great number of persons to which it may afford employment. It has been computed, that the linen imported into England might employ and maintain upwards of two hundred and fifty thousand, exclusive of those employed in raising and dressing flax. Lord Sheffield observes, it is worthy consideration whether an additional duty on foreign linen might not be adviseable: it would not only improve the revenue, but operate as a bounty to the home manufacture.

The next article of Irish commerce, considered by our author, is the produce of cattle. He observes, that the present relaxation of the navigation-laws, by the proclamations, is likely to prove extremely prejudicial to Ireland, especially as the continuance of it may, at length, form a precedent, which afterwards will be regarded as a principle. The provision-trade, our author farther remarks, is infinitely more advantageous to Ireland than seems generally to be imagined; and there cannot be worse policy than her exportation of live cattle. On the contrary, he thinks that she should slaughter her own cattle, and cure the beef for exportation.

Lord Sheffield affirms, that not only the provision-trade is greatly prejudiced, but the commerce and marine of the British dominions are likely to be very much impaired, through the encouragement which is given to infractions and suspensions of the navigation-laws.

It would, says he, require a volume to state to the public the abuses communicated to the writer of these Observations, relative to the registering of shipping, not only in the West

*Indies*, where there is scarce an attempt at concealment, and in Ireland, but also in Great Britain. A few pieces of money will immediately convert an American into a British-built ship; and a certificate may be got in Britain, in Ireland, and the British West-Indies, for a ship now building at Philadelphia. It is absolutely necessary to the salvation of the most essential of all manufactures, namely, ship-building, that the abuse be stopped; and surely it is time that our ministers should understand the necessity of it. The greatness of the abuse leads us to inquire into the necessity of permitting other certificates or registers to be given in the distant settlements, at least to vessels trading with the British European dominions, except such as may be sometimes necessary to bring a vessel home. Without presuming to propose the proper checks to the evil, it is greatly to be wished some measures may be adopted for that purpose.

The next object of our author's attention is the fisheries; of which he observes, that notwithstanding their present insignificant state, it may reasonably be expected that in due time they will acquire such a degree of prosperity, as to rank immediately after the linen and provision-trade: for Ireland has advantages in the several fisheries superior to any other country in Europe, not only in situation, but in her numerous creeks and harbours. His lordship thinks it is in the herring fishery she is most likely to excel; and it is that, principally, which she should, at least for a time, pursue. In respect of the whale-fishery likewise, the situation of Ireland appears to be advantageous; and with regard to the abundance of cod, ling, and hake, we are told, that on the coast of Ireland there are banks constantly frequented by white fish, which is said to be as good, and even larger than what is taken at Newfoundland.

Of the woollen manufacture lord Sheffield remarks, that it is not likely ever to be a principal export of Ireland.

"It is curious, says he, to observe the illiberal arts and injudicious exertions of oppression, employed by one country to depress and prevent the exportation of the woollen manufacture of the other; and the equally ignorant disposition of Ireland, almost constantly during this century, to impute her poverty and inability of growing rich, to the want of a woollen export trade, while it is probable, that since the revolution she barely grew wool enough to clothe her own inhabitants.

'England seems to have been blind as to a very obvious consequence of prohibiting the exportation of woollens from Ireland, namely, that it would lead her to manufacture her wool into a great variety of articles for her own consumption, which she then took from England, and reduce her import of English manufactures; whereas the frizes, the then principal manufacture of Ireland, did not interfere with any branch of her woollens.'

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This observation is confirmed by the detail which our author affords of the quantities of drapery imported from England, after the prohibition of the exportation of woollens from Ireland. His lordship's remarks on this subject tend also to evince the small probability that Ireland, under a great increase of inhabitants, an increased tillage, and probable decrease of sheep, is likely to prejudice the British manufacture, by diminishing her demand for English woollens, or by carrying her woollen manufacture to a much greater extent, or exporting much greater quantities than she has already done.

It appears from our author's account, that the manufactures of silk in Ireland are very considerably increased, though not equal to her consumption; for the importation of manufactured silk has likewise increased considerably.

The cotton manufacture can hardly be said to have been above four or five years in Ireland; yet it seems already to be well established. It is computed that near thirty thousand persons are employed in it. In his lordship's account of this article we meet with one observation, in which he must be joined by every reader. It is, that the pleasure of seeing children advantageously employed in the cotton manufacture, is greatly diminished by learning that part of them work all night, even so young as five or six years of age; and the wages so low as sixpence *per week*, and from that price to thirteen pence a week, in some places.

In treating of iron, and the manufactures of iron and steel, we meet with the following just observations.

'The useful and necessary manufacture of iron being capable, perhaps, of higher improvement and greater extension than any other, and being of the utmost national importance in every point of view, undoubtedly deserves a volume; nor would it be an easy matter to point out all its advantages and all its importance. And yet that most essential business, the making of iron in Great Britain, has been in a great degree rescued within a few years almost from ruin, by the ingenuity and spirit of a few men, who deserve, at least, as well of their country as any of its most favourite patriots.

'The scarcity and price of wood have rendered it impossible to make a quantity of iron, either to enter into competition with foreign markets, or even to make a sufficient quantity for home consumption and manufactures; but the improvements in making good bar iron with pit coal, the great aid given to labour, and the expences saved by the improved steam engines, afford a reasonable hope, that in time, if no extraordinary checks should intervene, enough will be made in Britain to supply these kingdoms with that necessary article, whereby between 5 and 600,000*l.* annually, now paid to foreign countries

at their ports of exportation, exclusive of the freight and other great expences, would be saved to the nation. This might seem enough to recommend it to the attention and care of the public and of the legislature; but it would not be merely a saving of a certain sum. The employment given to so great a number of men should not be forgotten, and in a manufacture which, on inquiry, will be found as beneficial as any, formed with materials dug out of the earth, not applicable to any other purpose, consequently not interfering with any manufacture, but assisting many, nor causing any change that may take off from other produce. When land is converted from tillage to pasture, or from wood to either tillage or pasture, there is a loss of certain articles; but in the case of iron, in the making of which, ore, limestone, and coal are used, there is none. It should be added, that no manufacturers pay more in excises than those employed in this branch; and supposing 50,000 tons to be imported, and that one man can make a ton in a year, that he pays, in excises of all kinds, upwards of 6l. annually, which are computed to be the case, there would be an increase of excise, at least, to the amount of 300,000l. which would more than doubly pay the loss to the revenue that would arise from the non-importation of 50,000 tons of foreign iron.

‘ We are apt to consider iron and bar iron as a raw material; in the latter state it is a manufacture far advanced, and in a mid-way stage from the ore to perfection. We should observe that the great consumption of iron is in the gross articles, and not in those which require the greatest degree of manufacture. Iron has this peculiar recommendation above almost all other manufactures, that in every stage of it, its value is simply the product of labour, which labour is not hazardous to the lives, or prejudicial to the health of those employed, but, on the contrary, has been remarkably wholesome.’

We are informed, that since the heavy duty was laid, a few years ago, on glass in Britain, Ireland has made an extraordinary progress in this manufacture. She had little of it before; but nine glass-houses have now suddenly arisen in Ireland. Nevertheless she still imports large quantities; though it is our author’s opinion, that she must soon have almost the whole of this trade to the British settlements and the American States.—We are sorry that any observations which deserve so much the attention of Great Britain, should be of so disagreeable a nature as the following, which we adopt on his lordship’s authority.

‘ The British tax is laid in a pernicious manner on the metal; the waste and blemished part are taxed and retaxed without end; and bad ware will be sent out to avoid the loss. Several glass-houses at Stourbridge have been given up lately; the number in London is greatly reduced, and our exportation to the continent, it is said, is now principally confined to articles  
of

of a high price, which form but a small part of the manufacture. The French, also, have decoyed away many of the best workmen, and have thereby improved their own manufacture of glass.—The table glass made in Ireland is very handsome, and apparently as good as any made in England; at the same time the best drinking glasses are three or four shillings per dozen cheaper than English. The general increased consumption in Ireland appears, from the importation of most articles, except drinking glasses, in nearly the same quantities, notwithstanding so considerable a quantity is now made in the country.

Our author remarks, that the successful rivalry of the British glass-manufactory in Ireland, within a very few years, shows the progress she is likely to make in a short period in that of earthen-ware. When we consider that this manufacture maintains many thousands of poor labouring people in several and distant parts of England, we cannot help regretting, that it has been clogged with imposts and prohibitions, in foreign countries, more, perhaps, than any other British manufacture.

‘ Since we have lost the monopoly of the American market, says lord Sheffield, the manufacturers on the continent have had an additional inducement to attempt rivalling us there; for which purpose they have hired our workmen, and taken every other step in their power. The rapid improvement they have made in this manufacture shew that they have not laboured in vain, and that nothing less than our utmost exertions, accompanied with such assistance as government can afford, in preserving to us the markets that are still left open, and opening, where practicable, those which are now shut, can enable us to retain, for any length of time, that superiority we are at present in possession of; for we have no advantage over many parts of the continent either in the goodness or cheapness of our materials, and labour (which constitutes nearly the whole of the expence of this manufacture) is at least cent. per cent. against us.

‘ Most of these circumstances will equally affect Ireland.’

Our author observes, it is remarkable that the importation of a manufacture so much in the power of Ireland as stockings, should have increased so considerably in ten years. He thinks it probable however, that the manufacture within the country has also increased, though not in proportion to the consumption; and the increased importation, when combined with other circumstances, affords a strong presumption of the progressive improvement of the kingdom.

It appears that the manufacture of hats in Ireland must be very considerable. In the year ending the 25th of March,

1784, the export to America alone increased to eleven thousand eight hundred and sixty-seven.

We likewise find that the upholstery-manufacture, which includes carpeting and blankets, is much improved and extended in Ireland; and though, by an account annexed to our author's Observations, the importation increased in ten years, the consumption was yet more increased.

Notwithstanding the encouragement given in Ireland for the making of pot-ashes, so essential for the linen manufacture, the importation has increased one-third in ten years; a circumstance which, as our author observes, proves that the linen manufacture has likewise increased during the same period.

On books, paper, &c. the noble lord makes the following observations.

‘Whenever any arrangement is made between Great Britain and Ireland, it is hoped that some attention will be paid to literary property, and that copy right will be secured on a proper footing: the correction of an abuse injurious to men of genius and science surely deserves attention. Many books have been very well printed in Ireland; still a considerable quantity must be imported, and more than would be supposed from the following account—Indeed the mode of rating unbound books, viz. at 10s. per cwt. is not very satisfactory. A great number of books are carried into Ireland without being entered.

‘It appears that in ten years there was no great variation in the importation of writing paper into Ireland, but the quantity of printing paper was reduced above half. Several other sorts of paper are imported into Ireland, but not in quantities worth mentioning.

‘The late duties on paper in Britain have much enhanced the price of books, and debased the paper on which they are printed. They are taxes on trade and learning. Ireland will underset Britain in the article of paper.’

Our author remarks, that notwithstanding the great increase of tillage in Ireland, and the improvements in husbandry, it is extraordinary that her importation of beer should increase so considerably, and her exportation decrease. This observation induces his lordship to be of opinion, that there must be some bad management.

The agriculture in Ireland, though there may be many exceptions to the general rule, is very bad; and this our author imputes to the want of capital in the farmers, as much as to a defect in the Irish system of husbandry. Tillage nevertheless has increased of late years; so that though Ireland used to import corn, and sometimes very largely, she has exported of that commodity ever since 1776.

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Our author afterwards gives an account of the general trade of Ireland, her trade with England, Scotland, the British colonies, the American States, Portugal, Spain, France, Holland, and Flanders, and with the East country; under which denomination are included Denmark, Norway, Sweden, Russia, and the Baltic. Through the whole of this commercial survey, the annual exports and imports are specified by the entries at the custom-house. These are followed with an abstract of the revenue of Ireland, with the expence of management, drawbacks, premiums, &c. for the year ending the 25th of March, 1784: likewise a general statement of the national account of Ireland, for the same year.

An extract from the Observations with which the volume concludes, may not be an improper sequel to our review.

The most successful of our political writers are those who assert roundly that the public interests are irretrievably sunk into distress and misery. There is the greatest disposition in the people to be convinced that such doctrines are just; and they greedily adopt maxims which seem rather formed to prepare us for another world, than to reconcile us to that, in which we are placed. On the other hand; it is an ungrateful, and, in general, an unsuccessful task, to endeavour to undeceive the people of Britain, or of Ireland, to satisfy them that their affairs are in a good way, and that, collectively considered, they have ample cause for contentment, and ample means of happiness. An author, however, who has no pretensions to popularity, who never aimed at it, and never will, might, on the strength of the facts stated in the foregoing pages, and, proved by authentic documents, venture to assert, that the manufactures, the trade, the finances, and every thing appertaining to Ireland, except the minds of her people, are in a good way. He might, perhaps, go still farther, and affirm, that no other country ever possessed so many advantages, and was so happily circumstanced. He must not, indeed, dare to pronounce the people happy, until they may think proper to be so; but thus much he will contend for, that Ireland possesses the *great* and *useful* advantages of the greatest countries; and that she is gradually advancing to the attainment of every advantage acquired and maintained by Britain. Her soil is excellent, her climate favourable to agriculture and manufactures; her people capable of whatever they please to undertake; her situation the best for trade; her ports numerous and good. The principal unreasonable restrictions on her manufactures and trade have all, in great measure, been removed. She has obtained, in a short time, much more than she used to claim, much more than her most sanguine friends expected. The kingdom in general is in the most prosperous state, and has, perhaps, been progressively more so than any country in Europe, during the greater part of a century. But such is our miserable nature, that  
discontent,

discontent, delusion, and extravagancies seemed to gain ground; they have spread over the land, under circumstances which ought to have produced the most opposite effects; and no longer ago than last summer, if we may give any credit to public prints, Ireland appeared to have neither constitution nor government, nor common sense. Aggregate or other meetings had announced that a total change was necessary, that the parliaments were bad, that they were dependent, and this shortly after parliament had asserted the independence of the legislature, and had gained more popular advantages for the country than all the parliaments of Ireland ever had done.'

After the account we have given of these Observations, it is unnecessary to add, that lord Sheffield's acquaintance with the present state of Ireland is so extensive, that it cannot but impress us with a high opinion of the patriotism which must have animated him to the prosecution of such a laborious research. Many of his lordship's observations throw light on the subject of commercial intercourse, now under the consideration of parliament; but are particularly useful towards elucidating the interests of Ireland, in almost every object of national concern. So much investigation, and so judiciously conducted, remains an honourable proof of industry exerted in endeavouring to promote the public good.

*The proposed System of Trade with Ireland explained.* 8vo.  
1s. 6d. Robinson.

AT a time when the commercial intercourse of Great Britain and Ireland awaits the decision of parliament, it is not improbable, that many who wish the prosperity of their own country, may entertain apprehensions with regard to the effect of the regulations proposed by the minister; whilst others, perhaps, though not really disapproving of those measures, may be induced from private motives to propagate such apprehensions, with the view of embarrassing administration. To obviate as much as possible these sources of complaint, and to enable the public to form a just estimate of the proposed system, no method can be more proper than to divest the subject of all misrepresentation, and to state fairly both the nature and the probable effect of the measures which it is the intention of the cabinet to pursue. The pamphlet now before us is professedly written with this design; and we shall therefore give such an account of it as the importance of the subject, and the satisfaction of our readers may require.

The opinions of those who object to the proposed system are so various, and appear to have so little foundation, that it is not easy to collect the substance of their apprehensions; they must

must, however, mean to contend, that it will have a dangerous operation on the navigation and the commerce of this country. It is, therefore, proper to shew the present situation of Ireland, with the means by which she has attained it; the one she wishes to be placed in, and the probable effects which the whole arrangement will have, if completed, on our manufactures, our trade, and our shipping.

‘Ireland is, at this time, an independent kingdom, in possession of a constitution as free as the one we have the happiness to enjoy, with a right to trade with every nation on earth, which chuses to trade with her. The connection which subsists between her and this country induces her however, to restrain herself in many instances, and to confine her consumption to the produce of Great Britain and her colonies, for the mutual advantage of the two countries.

‘Ireland being therefore in possession of a right to a free trade with all the world, she complains of restraints still imposed on her by Great Britain, in whose favour she has restrained herself. Great concessions, it is true, have been made to her within these few years, during a former administration; they were made, however, but as necessity compelled them; without system, without concert, and without even previously knowing what satisfaction they would afford her; much less was any attempt made to obtain the smallest advantage in return: nothing was ever attended to, but on the pressure of the moment; when her calls were loud and alarming, an expedient was to be thought of to stop them; in that manner she obtained the acts of 18 Geo. III. ch. 55, and the 20th Geo. III. ch. 10. Under the last, she derived the most important benefit of all, a direct trade to the British colonies, infinitely more valuable to her than every thing which, from that time, remained to be given to her. It is not intended here to censure that measure in the smallest degree, but to insist that it should have formed but a part of a final settlement, which might then have been concluded with infinitely less difficulty than now: Great Britain having thus relieved Ireland so far, by opening to her a free trade to the British colonies in Africa and America, upon the same terms on which she trades with them herself; she now requests, as a completion of the measure, that Great Britain will remove the remaining restrictions which still fetter her trade, urging as the basis of her claim, equality in trade, for monopoly of consumption.

‘This equality was intended to have been proposed by lord North, in the year 1779, if he had possessed energy enough to have perfected a system of any sort; but as that could not be done without an accurate investigation, and minute inquiries, the decision was from time to time delayed till within twenty-four hours of the Irish business being opened in the house of commons in that year, notwithstanding an unanimous address had been presented to the king at the close of the preceding session,

session, " recommending to his majesty's most serious consideration, the distressed and impoverished state of the loyal and well-deserving people of Ireland; and to direct that there be prepared, and laid before parliament, such particulars, relative to the trade and manufactures of Great Britain and Ireland, as to enable the national wisdom to pursue effectual measures, for the common strength, wealth, and commerce of his majesty's subjects in both kingdoms;" and his majesty's answer, " that he would give directions accordingly;" a determination was then at length suddenly taken, to give the boon just mentioned, without the promised information. As soon, however, as the measure was resolved on, another of his majesty's ministers, who highly approved of it, sent off the pleasing intelligence to Ireland; and it was actually known to the merchants of Dublin, Cork, and Waterford, before the lord lieutenant had advice of it. A benefit, so bestowed and communicated, was estimated by the Irish naturally enough, much below its real value, and the full effect of it was consequently lost.

" While the ports of Ireland are open to receive from Great Britain every species of commodity, whether the produce of Great Britain and her colonies, or any other part of Europe, Asia, Africa, and America; Great Britain, either by an interpretation of the navigation act or subsequent laws, by actual prohibitions, or by prohibitions arising from duties, shuts her ports against Ireland in those articles of commerce which Ireland admits freely from her.

" This inequality is complained of by Ireland, as unwise as well as oppressive; she desires therefore that she may be at liberty to import into Great Britain every species of goods, whether raw materials or manufactures, which Great Britain can import into Ireland upon equal terms reciprocally.

" The articles in which Ireland is restrained may be divided into two kinds.

" Ist, All articles the produce of the British Colonies in Asia, Africa, and America; and

" Ldly, Certain articles of the growth, produce, or manufacture, as well of Great Britain as of Ireland.

" Ireland is restrained in the first by an interpretation of the navigation act, as explained by the twenty-second and twenty-third of Charles the Second, ch. 26. and the Irish acts of fourteenth and fifteenth Charles the Second; and in the last by actual prohibitions, or by prohibitory duties."

After thus stating the commercial situation of Ireland, the author next observes, that the most proper way of examining how far the intended concessions may affect the trade of Great Britain, will be to show how the law stands at present with regard to each proposition, and how it will likewise stand hereafter; pointing out the particular objects of produce or manufacture, which



which will be affected by the alteration, and then to consider each particularly.

‘Much contrariety of opinion, says he, has been held in Great Britain and Ireland about the interpretation of the navigation act, as to its permitting the produce of Asia, Africa, and America, to be carried to Ireland through Great Britain, but restraining the same produce being brought to Great Britain through Ireland. The construction, however, in both countries, has invariably been, that, the words “foreign growth,” &c. do not relate to goods, &c. the growth, produce, or manufacture of Europe; and the practice has always been accordingly to admit such goods, from the one country into the other, upon the same duties as they would be subject to from the place of their growth.

‘If the law is now to be altered, to put both countries on the same footing, it will follow that Ireland will apparently acquire a liberty of exporting to Great Britain the produce of Asia, Africa, and America.

‘The trade of Great Britain can, however, be affected only in articles, the growth, produce, or manufacture, of the two last-mentioned quarters of the world; because she has by her own laws restrained her importation of Asiatic produce from all places except Great Britain, giving the East India company a monopoly of her consumption; and the goods of Europe have always been admitted without interruption from the one country into the other.

‘With respect to Africa, there exists at present no trade or intercourse between it and Ireland; nor is there much prospect of any; as there is, however, a possibility of one, it shall be considered with the trade of America, which is of considerable extent with Ireland.

‘By the laws of both kingdoms, as they now stand, Ireland has a right to export all her produce and manufacture to Africa and America, and to import from thence all articles of the growth, produce, or manufacture of those countries; and having imported them into Ireland, she can again export them to all parts of the world to which Great Britain can send them; which import and export trade is, as to duties and drawbacks, precisely the same in both countries. Nothing then is desired by Ireland, or given by Great Britain, as to the general trade between Ireland, Africa, and America; or between Ireland and the rest of the world.

‘The mischief therefore to be dreaded, is reduced to the apprehension, that the produce of the colonies will be brought often through Ireland. This must arise either from Ireland becoming the carriers of African and American goods for the merchants of Great Britain, or from her being able to import them upon her own capital, and send them into Great Britain upon such terms as to enable her to undersell the British merchants in their own markets.

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‘To form a true judgment how far this apprehension is grounded, we must consider the present situation of the Irish in this respect. They can now import directly into Great Britain, in Irish ships navigated according to law, all the produce of Africa and America, exactly on the same terms as the merchants of England; they can also import these goods in Irish ships into Ireland, where they are subject to the same duties as here; can invoice any part of the cargo to be landed there, and the remainder to be sent to any part of Great Britain. How then can the carrying-trade be affected by the present question? because, whether the extension is admitted or not, Ireland can equally carry both directly from the colonies, and circuitously, as above stated, all the produce thereof. And this will tend equally to shew, that this alteration cannot enable her to send such produce into Great Britain upon cheaper terms than she imports it at present; for the only benefit that would arise to Ireland by it would be, that she might then land the produce of Africa and America in her own ports; and, if at the time that her merchants should want to dispose of it, there should be a better market in Britain than in Ireland, she might send it there to a possible advantage; to a certain one she never could, as the prices of sugars fluctuate too considerably in the London market, for any reliance to be had on their keeping up long enough for a vessel to perform a voyage from Cork or Waterford to this city.

‘It appears, therefore, that the prospect of advantages to be derived to Ireland are not particularly flattering in this part of the arrangement. She may, however, be benefited without any injury to England, unless it can be shewn that it is a disadvantage to the latter, that the produce should not bear a price above its natural value in her own market; Ireland will, it is true, in future, have the same advantage of the English market as we have of theirs; and no good reason can be given why they should not, in perfecting a system of equality of trade. If that circumstance should ever have the effect of reducing the prices of colony produce, it will enable the exportation of it to foreign countries on better terms.

‘Great stress is laid on the advantageous situation of Ireland for carrying on trade with Africa and America; and it is urged, that she can import articles from thence much cheaper than England, consequently that she will undersell Great Britain. Nothing, however, can be less true. Admitting even that she can import from thence for her own consumption, on more favourable terms than Great Britain can for her’s; yet it is demonstrable, that the argument does not apply to her supplying England, unless it is contended, that the shortest and cheapest way of importing goods from Africa and America to this country is, by carrying them first into a port in Ireland, and then bringing them from thence to a port here. Such reasoning is too gross for the blindest prejudice.

‘The

‘The truth is, that the price of freight and premiums of insurance from all parts of America, including the West India islands, to the ports in Ireland, are precisely the same as to the ports in Great Britain. Whatever, therefore, is imported here from the colonies through Ireland, must come in burthened with the additional charges of the usual freight and insurance from that country to this, and with the expences there attending the landing the produce, custom-house fees, ware-housing, waste, &c. &c. &c.

‘In the Irish channel Great Britain has ports nearly opposite to the Irish ones—Bristol to Corke—Chester, Liverpool, and Whitehaven, to Dublin and Newry: the ports on the west coast of Ireland, though nearer to America, are remote from England; and the voyage round the island requires a variety of winds, consequently is tedious and hazardous.’

The author next attends to the argument much insisted upon, that if Ireland is permitted to send the produce of Africa and America into England, she will underfell the British merchants, because she is able to make up her manufactures cheaper than in England.

In answer to this argument the author asks, ‘If this is true, why does not Ireland now avail herself of the advantage? as she can at this time send her manufactures to Africa and America, and can bring back directly to Great Britain all their produce, which is her cheapest way of doing it.’ But the foregoing argument is clearly refuted by experience. It is well known, as the author observes, that the English manufactures meet the Irish in the markets of the latter, though loaded with freights, duties, insurance, and commission. The Irish therefore can have no great advantage of Great Britain in the markets of America or the West Indies: and this conclusion receives additional force from the following considerations.

‘The estates in the islands are owned almost exclusively by persons in this country, or having connections here; the English merchants have advanced large sums on many of them, which either secures or induces the produce to be brought here: Great Britain is in possession of the whole of the African trade, which must of necessity give her a decided superiority in her commerce with the West Indies; she has also other considerable advantages, among which may be reckoned a numerous shipping, with the consequent cheapness of freights;—the large capitals of her merchants, and great wealth diffused through the country;—the long credits she is thereby enabled to give, and the assortments she is enabled to make up for cargoes, in which she is assisted by her monopoly of the East India trade;—these reasons will account for the prices of sugar and rum being often as low in Great Britain as in the places of growth, which induces

duces Ireland to purchase here upon credit, rather than in the islands. The state of the exportation of West-India produce from Great Britain to Ireland in 1774 (previous to the smallest interruption of our commerce), and of importation into Ireland from Great Britain in 1784, together with a comparative account of the imports and exports of rum and sugar into and from England for two years, ending at Christmas 1764, and at Christmas 1781, will prove this more forcibly than any arguments, when it is considered that Ireland has now been near six years in full possession of a direct trade to the colonies:

In contrast to the advantages of the British merchant, the author observes, that the Irish who trade to the West Indies must buy the produce of those islands either with his outward-bound cargo, which will not buy more than half a one at home, or with bills, for which he must pay a commission to obtain indorsements.

“Under these circumstances, is it likely that Ireland will supply her own consumption of sugars, rum, &c. much less send any of those articles here? Admitting, however, such a possibility to exist, what grounds of apprehension can there be of her supplying that of Great Britain from her stores, under all the disadvantages already enumerated, of double freight, double insurance, treble custom-house fees, interest of money, waste, commission, storage, &c. &c.?”

Another argument used by the opponents of the proposed system is, that the admission of the colony-produce through Ireland will afford means to the merchants of that country, for a speculation which may be prejudicial to this. In answer to this argument, he appeals to the English merchants, whether a speculation by a direct importation, made seldom but from necessity, answers once in a hundred times. Should it be urged, that the commodities might be kept, with the view of obtaining an advanced price, he desires it may be remembered that sugar and rum, the principal articles, are both of a perishable nature; and that the loss of quantity is certain, though the rise of the price be doubtful.

“If then, says the author, the British market is supplied with more than sufficient for its own consumption, how is Ireland to speculate upon the opening of that market, except for the purpose of sending in such produce to be re-exported to some other country, where Ireland can at this day send it directly, and have that profit which she would transfer to England by sending it through her medium?”

On this subject, it is observed, we are furnished with means of forming a positive judgment. Cotton wool, which is not liable to injury or waste by keeping, is a considerable article

article of produce in our colonies, and has long been importable from Ireland into this country, affords a striking instance that the Irish will not be induced to try the speculation so much apprehended. The prices of it have fluctuated within these four years from fourteen pence to three shillings and six pence per pound. Of course the temptation must be greater to speculate in it than any other article; yet not a single bag, we are assured, has ever been exported from Ireland; but on the contrary, our export to that country has increased.

The next objection, of which the author takes notice, is the supposed danger of introducing foreign sugars through Ireland; and this apprehension, it seems, has even alarmed the West India planters and merchants. But these men, the author observes, are not within a possibility of being affected by the intended regulations, which by no means increase the danger so much apprehended.

‘Many of these gentlemen know perfectly well that the principal risk of introducing foreign sugars into this country is through our own islands; the traders there procure them, with considerable difficulty it is true, in small quantities from the French; but when they get them on shore, they obtain the necessary documents with great ease to entitle them to obtain certificates from the custom-houses, under which they can just as well ship them for this kingdom as for Ireland. An effectual remedy may, however, be suggested for that evil, which, it is hoped, the wisdom of parliament may adopt. The importation of foreign colony produce is as strictly prohibited in Ireland as here; and the revenue business is conducted with as much ability and attention there as in this, or probably in any other country: why then are we to apprehend the introduction of foreign sugars from thence, when it is quite as much their interest to prevent fraudulent importation of such produce as it is ours?’

‘If however any man can possibly still suppose, after all that has been said, that there is a danger of foreign sugar being clandestinely introduced into Ireland; let him consider what a home consumption, besides the chance of a foreign export, they have to smuggle for, before they can find an advantage in sending them to this country; and then he must confess we can have nothing to apprehend on that score, even in ages to come.’

It has been argued, the author observes, by two late ministers, that the most dangerous part of the whole system is the entrusting the care of the navigation laws to the Irish, who, they say, will be inattentive in the execution of them, and will even countenance perpetual violations of them. His answer to this argument it is necessary that we likewise submit to our readers.

'If there is any thing in the argument, it comes very ill from them, who, by the acts of the 20th G. III. c. 10. and the 22d G. III. c. 53. put much more in the power of the Irish, with respect to the general navigation of the empire, than is now proposed; the first act left the trade between Africa and America, and Ireland, entirely under the care of the revenue officers there, which before that was dependent upon this country; and the last-mentioned act made Ireland perfectly independent of all our laws in regulating her trade with every foreign country. No proof has ever been offered of the relaxation of the custom-house laws in Ireland; and very little was hazarded in the preceding assertion, that they are quite as well executed there as here.'

The only remaining argument respecting this part of the system is, that the Irish are able to navigate cheaper than this country, on account of the low price of provisions amongst them. To this the author answers, that provisions may be bought in London, in sufficient quantities to victual merchant-ships, cheaper even than in the Irish ports. But supposing small parcels of provisions to be bought so much cheaper at Corke or Waterford than in London, as whole cargoes may, a ship of three hundred tons, carrying twenty men, would then be victualled for a nine months voyage to the West Indies for forty or fifty shillings less at those ports than here. Even in this case, the other articles required in the out-fit of a ship will be procured here to so much greater advantage than in Ireland, as to counterbalance the difference in the prices of provisions.

Such are the arguments advanced by this intelligent author, in answer to the objections which have been made to the proposed system of commercial intercourse. From a due consideration of the whole, we must acknowledge there seems reason to join with him in opinion, that the apprehensions of Ireland's being thereby enabled to undersell Great Britain, are without foundation: that the intended concessions can make no difference in any article of the produce of Europe: that its operation must be confined to the produce of Africa and America: that it can make no alteration in the direct trade which Ireland may now carry on between the colonies and Great Britain, with every advantage she can obtain by the intended regulation: that the only privilege she will acquire will be that of sending the produce of the colonies into Great Britain by a circuitous way, and loaded with much greater expence than she can now send them; and consequently, that she will derive no additional capacity of underselling Great Britain in our own markets, in these articles. With respect

to

to other markets, the situation of Ireland will remain entirely the same as at present.

The author, having treated of the first part of the proposed system, or that which relates to its operation on such articles as are the produce of the British colonies in Asia, Africa, and America, proceeds to the second part, in which he takes a view of the several articles which are the growth, produce, or manufacture of Great Britain and Ireland; endeavouring to show how a mutual intercourse may be established, upon a footing of equality; and what injury is to be expected thence to England. The principles upon which the proposed system is founded, will appear from the following extract.

‘ The way to put things upon an equal footing is, first, to explain the navigation act to mean the same in both countries, notwithstanding subsequent laws in either country imposing restraints on Ireland; to take away all prohibitions in both countries, and to establish equal duties and drawbacks upon the same articles in each, except where an excise or other internal duty exists upon any article in either country; in which case an additional import duty, equal to the excise, should be imposed upon such article.

‘ The terms of equality, as to duties, may be settled either by importing reciprocally without any duties, or by payment of the duties now payable in Great Britain, or by payment of those now payable in Ireland, or of such equal and reasonable duties as may be settled on each article; or a general principle may be adopted, by reducing the duties in each country to the lowest duty payable upon each article in either country, except in the case above excepted.

‘ This last is the mode proposed, and appears to be the fairest of all.

‘ The importing without duties would not answer, because it would destroy a very large proportion of the Irish revenue, and would check the progress of the infant manufactures, as well as endanger the removal of some of the more established ones, in both countries; nor would the importing invariably, either upon the English or the Irish duties, answer, because what would suit the one country might not the other; but each kingdom mutually encouraging the manufactures of the other, by importing them at the lowest duties, consistent with the existence of them in the weaker country, appears to be the most conciliating and the fairest principle that can be adopted; for it appears that such duty will be in general about 10l. per cent. and it seems to be unwise in either country, to apply their capital and their industry to any manufacture, which, when brought to perfection, can be undersold to the other, paying a duty of 10l. per cent. subject to the various expences which must necessarily occur in the sending such manufactures to market from the one country to the other, because the same quan-

tity of labour, industry, and capital, applied to some other manufacture, would produce more profit. England and Ireland ought to be considered in this respect as two distinct parts of the same kingdom; it would be unwise in London to attempt a manufacture which York could undersell her in by 101. per cent. in her own market: why then should England or Ireland attempt such a thing?

With respect to the manner in which the intended regulations will affect Great Britain, this, our author observes, will be best known from a consideration of the articles now prohibited; because, upon the extent of this list, and the nature of the several articles of which it consists, depends entirely the effect of the proposed plan. He then enumerates the articles prohibited by law to be imported from Ireland; and likewise the produce of manufactures of Ireland virtually prohibited by duties.

In the former of these classes, the only article of any consequence is silk; in which, it is apprehended, England cannot be much in danger from the rivalry of Ireland. One reason for such an opinion is, that the price of labour in this manufacture bears so small a proportion to the first cost of the raw materials, that whoever has the raw material cheapest, will have the advantage. England has a Levant trade, which Ireland has not, and has the monopoly of India silk, inasmuch that Ireland now takes her raw silk entirely from England.

Another reason is, that in Ireland, the great bulk of the silk manufactured is made into plain slight goods, handkerchiefs, silks for cloaks, lutestrings, &c. and in those kinds of goods, the labour bears a proportion of one in eight to the raw material: and in the finest kinds there made, such as damasks, flowered silk, &c. three to eight. The author thence concludes, that the argument which is relied on in other cases, viz. the danger to England from the cheapness of labour in Ireland, will not hold good in the silk manufacture.

The principal article of those enumerated in the latter class is the woollen manufacture, the great object of jealousy in this country. To enter into a full investigation of all that relates to this manufacture, might prove tedious to our readers. Suffice it therefore to observe that, according to the assertion of this author, the report of the committee of privy council, presented to the house of commons, contains a complete statement of it, so far as England is concerned; and it thence appears, that this country has no reason to entertain any jealousy of Ireland, in regard to the woollen manufacture.

In



In examining the state of this manufacture in Ireland, it is observed, that for various causes, but particularly the great increase of inhabitants, and improvement of the land, the quantity of wool in that country is so much decreased, that Ireland has not now wool enough of her own to supply her own market. If therefore she should export any part of her wool, manufactured into such goods as she may be able to work up cheaper than England, the consequence must be, that, to supply their place, she must import an equal quantity of fine woollen goods, which she can import only from Great Britain.

From a statement of the quantity of raw wool exported from Ireland in the years 1782 and 1783, the author concludes, that if the whole of the raw wool and bay yarn exported from Ireland, was manufactured into ultimate perfection, it would not supply the quantity imported; so that if Ireland should export more of her wool, completely manufactured, than she does at present, she must also import a great quantity of woollen manufactures from England, to supply such export. The author makes it evident from other considerations, that England has a great advantage over Ireland in respect to the capacity of supporting the woollen manufacture.

Refined sugar is another article in which it has been alleged that England must suffer great detriment from the proposed regulations. To this objection we meet with the following reply.

‘The raw material being the produce of the West Indies, observation has been already made on what occurred respecting it; it is necessary only to add, that while Ireland imported raw sugar at 1s. 8d. a hundred, and England at 5s. 6d. she was able to supply a considerable part of the consumption of Ireland in refined sugar, and to undersell her in her own market, after paying the expences of the carriage to Ireland, and a duty of 2s. per hundred. How then is Ireland to send refined sugar to England, when she pays a duty now equal to that paid in England upon the raw material, and certainly buys it at as high, if not an higher price? The Irish duty, however, on that article, which will probably regulate the future duty here, must, in any event, afford sufficient protection to the refiners here, even against foreign sugars manufactured in the country.’

The author examines the objections which have been made relative to the cotton manufacture, including cotton, and linen mixed with cotton; the printing branch both of cotton and linens; the manufacturing of leather; starch; tallow used in making candles and soap; besides iron, corn, and other grain.

From the whole of this pamphlet, so full of important information, we have the satisfaction to find, that the most es-

sential objections which have been made to the proposed system of commercial intercourse with Ireland, are greatly extenuated, if not entirely removed; and that there is no just reason for entertaining any apprehension of those pernicious effects, which it has been suggested would result from the operation of that plan.

## MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

### P O L I T I C A L.

*A short Essay on the Modes of Defence best adapted to the Situation and Circumstances of this Island. 2vo. 2s. Wilkie.*

**T**HIS Essay is said to be the production of an officer: it is certainly written by a man cool and dispassionate, candid and intelligent. His remarks seem well entitled to attention; for to extensive knowledge in military history, he joins a local acquaintance with the places which he mentions, and great professional skill. His chief objects are to prove, that the works now carrying on round our dock-yards, are at best useless, because disproportionate to the military establishment, and requiring a much greater force than can be allotted to the defence of garrisons: that they may be injurious, because, if not defended, they may serve as a shelter for our enemies, should they ever acquire possession of them. The defence of the dock-yards he thinks to be a very trifling object. If ever our enemies mean seriously to undertake the conquest of this island, for their own sakes they would wish to preserve them, as they might become their own. We have only therefore to guard against a sudden descent, a predatory attempt, or a transitory expedition to destroy the naval stores. In these situations, our author thinks, that we might with greater ease deposit the combustible matters in store-houses, either out of the reach of shells, or proof against their force, and sink the others in the water. After all, by examining the plans, and those parts which have been already executed, he clearly shows, that the works are inadequate to the ends proposed; and the expence will be so enormous, that the whole will be probably abandoned before it be half finished.

These are the outlines of the author's particular arguments; and the following reasoning, which we select as a specimen, is a strong proof of the author's professional knowledge, and the clearness of his explanations.

\* Those who are foolish enough to assert, that such an extensive line as the one proposed for the Gosport division, can be defended by an inconsiderable force, would do well to pay some

Some attention to the resemblance which the part of it that extends from the Bay-house to Frater Lake, bears to the one which was occupied at the battle of Fontenoy, by the French army under the command of mareschal Saxe, the ablest general of the age he lived in. The angle formed by the village of that name, with Anthoin on the right, and the wood of Barry on the left, differs but little from the one which is formed by Rowner church with Frater Lake and Stoke's Bay-house; and the distances between those capital points in their line fall short, respectively, of the fronts extending between these in ours, some hundred yards; a circumstance which was for them, and is against us. Saxe, however, although he had almost five times as many men within his line as he that attacked it, although he had very judiciously thrown up three redoubts near Fontenoy, the salient and consequently tenderest part of it, found it impracticable to prevent our troops from penetrating it at that place, and almost completely cutting his army in two; which we certainly should have done, had he not supplied the weakness and defects of such a line, by his own good management and skill, in drawing his brigades from the left wing to support the centre. Nothing, on the one hand, is so difficult or disadvantageous, as to defend a salient angle which is embraced, or, on the other, so easy and advantageous, as to attack from a re-entering angle which embraces. This is a doctrine well understood by those who have had much practice in the crossing of rivers. The reason indeed is plain. When the angle which an enemy embraces, does not exceed that of a hexagon, he can bring his fire to cross in the rear of, and almost close to the work that occupies it. And whenever he does so, he can proceed with his attacks on it successfully, and in security; whilst it is impossible for any troops either to advance or remain near it for its protection, otherwise than under cover, without exposing themselves to inevitable destruction.'

*An Answer to the 'Short Essay on the Modes of Defence,' &c. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Almon.*

This Answer is greatly inferior to the Essay. It corrects indeed a few mistakes, probably arising from misinformation; but the principal arguments are not weakened. It is still true, that these works are disproportioned to our military establishment; that in some instances they are inadequate, and in others may be injurious. The answerer must surely be little acquainted with military tactics, when he contends that stores cannot, in a short space of time, be placed beyond the power of bombs, or red-hot shot.

*Strictures upon the Naval Departments, &c. &c. 8vo. 2s. Stockdale.*

These Strictures are written by the author of the 'Address to the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty,' on the degenerated

rated and dissatisfied state of the British 'Navy.' They contain much unqualified assertion, and some personal altercations with a noble lord, who, in the author's opinion, too rigidly confined himself to the letter of some naval regulations in his case, which he overlooked in his own. One circumstance only seems to deserve attention, viz. to examine the bottoms of those ships which have some time been covered with copper; and this, if we mistake not, is now executing. We see many authors, like this before us, who mistake the effect of personal disappointments for public zeal. The new house building for the commissioner will probably be an expensive undertaking, which may be saved; but true œconomy stoops not to trifles, and national splendor should not be sacrificed to the mean, narrow views of a sanguine reformer.

*Thoughts on a Reform in the British Representation, &c. By Jeremiah Gill. 8vo. 6d. Rivington.*

Amongst the various plans of reform which we have hitherto perused, that of Mr. Jeremiah Gill is certainly the boldest and most original. For carrying a reform into effect, he proposes, as the only adequate means, that the crown should be invested with a dictatorial power. Mr. Gill having, we find, published a pamphlet on the subject so long ago as the year 1768, there cannot now, after such a continuance of crudity, remain any hope that his plan will ever be digested, either by himself in one sense, or in another by the public. Convinced however that he means well, we are sorry that he should have bestowed so much attention to no purpose.

*Every Man his own Law-maker. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stockdale.*

This pamphlet is intended as a burlesque on the extravagant plans of parliamentary reform, which have been held forth by some of those democratical politicians who imagine themselves to be the only friends of the constitution. What the author says of his own production, in the title-page, is perfectly just. — 'Wherein the road to national Confusion is made plain and easy to the meanest Capacities.'

*Thoughts on the Commercial Arrangements with Ireland. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Jarvis.*

The author of this pamphlet, after stating the several propositions, relative to a commercial intercourse, made to the Irish house of commons, and subjoining to each the supposed remarks of the right hon. Mr. Orde, delivers his own observations. On this important subject we wish that the author had likewise minutely stated the facts upon which his observations ought to be founded; for without this addition, it is impossible to determine with any degree of certainty respecting the force of his arguments.

*A Free*

*A Free Enquiry into the enormous Increase of Attornies.* 8vo. 1s.  
Debrett.

Hardly any complaint is more generally acknowledged to be just, than that which relates to the number of pettyfogging attornies, who are doubtless a pest of society. The author of the present pamphlet seems not to exempt from this reproach even the respectable practitioners of the law; and whilst his censure remains so indiscriminate, we must own that the extirpation of a body of twenty-four thousand men (the number at which he computes the whole of the profession) would be an Augean task. In the mean time, as a remedy to this enormous evil, the author proposes that every lawyer should be compelled to testify upon oath his unequivocal belief, not only of the legal, but of the equitable title of his client.

*Discussions of the Law of Libels as at present received.* 8vo. 2s. 6d.  
Cadell.

The two speakers in this dialogue, besides examining the authority of the law of libels, and the nature of the evidence by which it is supported, take a view of the considerations which in the eye of government entitle it to the imputation of a public injury. They likewise enquire into the criminality of libels, as founded either in truth or falsehood; nor do they omit paying attention to the different modes in which libels may be communicated. The result of this long and circuitous confabulation is, that the law of libels is both inconsistent with the principles of our political constitution, and with itself; which, we are informed, will be rendered more evident in a future discussion, when the judicial cognizance of the offence shall become the object of enquiry.

The author of this pamphlet has doubtless chosen the form of dialogue for the convenience of exhibiting different sentiments, but we cannot help being of opinion that it is in other respects a disadvantageous mode of enquiry in subjects of this nature. By the multiplicity of replies and rejoinders, the chain of argument, if not interrupted, is at least diminished in its force; and when the object of enquiry ought to be enlightened, it is often involved in greater obscurity. Dialogue is suitable only in cases where the principles of the interlocutors are fixed, and generally known; but it seems calculated rather to conceal error than to evince the truth; and a reader is apt to mistrust the validity of a conclusion which is perhaps founded only in the weakness of an antagonist.

*The Rights of Juries vindicated.* 8vo. 2s. Johnson.

We are here presented with the speeches of the dean of St. Asaph's counsel, in the court of King's Bench, Westminster, on the 15th of November, 1784; in shewing cause why a new trial should be granted, the rule for which had been applied for on the motion of the hon. Thomas Erskine, the preceding Monday.

Monday. These speeches have already appeared in the public prints, and are now re-published, as taken in short-hand by Mr. Blanchard.

*An Answer to the Second Report of the East India Directors, respecting the Sale and Prices of Tea. By Richard Twining. 8vo. 2s. Cadell,*

In our Review for January, we gave a full account of the publications relative to tea, as they contained some facts of which it seemed proper that the public should be informed. Though the subject continues to be agitated between the directors of the East India company and the tea-dealers, we do not find that any additional light is cast upon it by either party. In a letter to Mr. Preston, subjoined to this Answer, Mr. Twining insists that he himself, and, he believes, all the old tea-dealers sell the commodity upon terms as advantageous to the public as those by which it is sold under the direction of Mr. Preston. But were the prices really the same, the public might be desirous of being informed, *bona fide*, whether the quality of the teas is likewise the same.

*Outlines of a ready Plan for protecting London and its Environs from the Depredations of House-breakers, Street, and Highway Robbers. 8vo. 1s. Richardson.*

The want of police in the capital is a subject of general complaint, and has within these few years given rise to different schemes for supplying the defect. The plan proposed by this author is to employ military patrols; for the regulation of which he suggests several hints, adapted to such a recourse.

*The Emperor's Claims, being a Description of the City of Antwerp and the River Schelde. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Stockdale.*

The emperor having afforded this author an occasion to avail himself of the public curiosity, with respect to the state of the Austrian Netherlands, the author, in return, has dedicated the work to his Imperial majesty. But as it is uncertain whether the emperor will reward him for this act of gratitude, his chief dependence must be upon the public. We shall therefore so far co-operate with his design, as to announce, that he delivers a description of the city of Antwerp and the river Schelde; with a concise history of the Austrian Netherlands; extracts from the treaties on which the Dutch found their right to the blocking up the Schelde; with other particulars relative to an illustration of the subject.

## P O E T R Y.

*Elegy to the Memory of Dr. Samuel Johnson. By Thomas Hobbeson. 4to. 6d. Stockdale.*

The subject of this performance is undoubtedly entitled to the condolence of the elegiac Muse; but we cannot say the poem

poem is worthy of the subject. The lines are indeed sufficiently harmonious; but the sentiments in general are trite.—The little piece of scenery with which it opens, notwithstanding the Teutonic rhyme of the first couplet, and a little tautology in the second, as the first line includes what is expressed in the following, is not destitute of descriptive merit:

‘The moon, reposing on yon pine-tree tops,  
With a soft radiance silvers all the copse;  
Nor aught is heard above, nor aught below;  
No flood to murmur, and no gale to blow;  
But dove-wing’d Silence, hovering o’er the scene,  
Sheds a mild grandeur, and a dead serene.’

*The City Quixote, a poetical, political, satirical, Colloquy.* 4to. 2s. Kearsley.

City wit! which those well acquainted with the internal politics of our metropolis, and the parties alluded to, will relish better than reviewers. Gog and Magog are the interlocutors. The following hobbling lines, spoken by the patriotic Magog, are not destitute of humour.

‘I remember the time—when substantial good men,  
I never shall look upon their like again,  
With capon-lin’d bellies, of gigantic size,  
Surrounded with beef, and entrench’d behind pies,  
With the green fat of turtles, greas’d up to the eyes,  
Their sleek rosy gills, would encircle the table,  
While each man devour’d, while each man was able.  
Good-humour then sat, on their rubicund faces,  
They laugh’d at soup-meagre, and frown’d on the grates,  
But regal’d, honest souls, on sir John Parsons’ singo,  
And knew not a syllable of the French lingo;  
’Twas loins such as theirs, did our heroes create,  
When Blake rul’d the ocean, and Burleigh the state.’

*Verses addressed to Sir G. O. Paul, Bart. on his benevolent Scheme for the Improvement of the County Prisons.* 4to. 1s. 6d. Debrett.

This poem celebrates a humane and worthy baronet, who, following the example of Mr. Howard, has personally examined into the abuses of our prisons; and lately published a pamphlet in which he proposed some plans for their better regulation\*. For a long time past we have met few panegyric poems entitled to much approbation; and mediocrity, like that of several others of the same kind, lately examined, is the characteristic of this performance.

‘—— facies non omnibus una  
Nec diversa tamen.’

Good sense and benevolence however pervade the whole; and if there is nothing strikingly beautiful, there is nothing to disgust or offend.

*Constancy, a poetical Tale, founded on Fact.* 4to. 6d. Evans.

We are told, in the advertisement, that the 'only merit to which this poem lays claim, is that of *simplicity*.'—The author's pretensions are modest, and we cannot in justice refuse them. The tale, though not very interesting, is managed with address.

*Susan and Osmund, a Lyric Poem.* 4to. 1s. 6d. Kearsley.

This is another tale, and probably equally founded in fact, but not so well related. The affected ornaments of style totally destroy its pathos.

*The Emigrant. A Poem.* By J. Ireland. 4to. 1s. Richardson.

'If juvenility can successfully plead in extenuation of poetical blemishes, and blunt, in some measure, the keen edge of criticism, the author of the following pages may lay claim to no inconsiderable share of indulgence; and presume, not vainly, that his first-born will be suffered peaceably to make its *entree* into the world, and live its day in it.' We know not how far this apology may weigh with the reader. We agree with the author that 'the cause of morality is not weakened or injured by his launching his *coup d'essai* upon the perilous sea of publication.'—But we can add nothing farther in its favour.

*The Knight and Friars; an historical Tale.* By Richard Paul Jodrell, Esq. F. R. S. and A. S. S. 4to. 2s. Dodsley.

This is a humorous story, originally related in prose by Thomas Heywood, in his *Puritan's*, and afterwards copied into Blomefield's History of Norfolk. It is now well known. Its present dress is very suitable to it; but as it was rendered into verse, almost while the author 'stood on one foot,' it is in some passages a little obscure.

## D R A M A T I C.

*Songs, &c. in Fontainebleau. A Comic Opera. As performed at the Theatre Royal in Covent Garden.* By Mr. O'Keefe. 8vo. 6d. Cadell.

The stage is Mr. O'Keefe's Parnassus. Within its boundaries let him pick up laurels, if he can; but let him never attempt to seek poetical fame amongst those who write for posterity.

*Liberty Hall; or the Test of Good Fellowship. A Comic Opera. As it is performed at the Theatre Royal in Drury-lane.* 8vo. 1s. Kearsley.

There must always be a trifling vehicle for music, since sound and sense, like beauty with honesty, 'is to have honey a sauce to sugar.' We cannot try this butterfly on any critical statute, so that it will escape condemnation. The chief attempt at character is in Ap Hugh; but it is only an attempt. In fact,



we have scarcely a proper representation of a Welshman since the brave, the generous, and the learned Fluellin. Dr. Druid's follies are those of any country; his virtues are so slight, that we cannot trace their origin. His language only is in the Welsh brogue. The songs of this trifle are the best parts of it. They are sometimes poetical and pleasing.

## M E D I C A L.

*An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of Fever.* By Caleb Dickinson, M. D. 1800. 3s. in Boards. Robinson.

This is a very respectable college-exercise, for we can hardly give it a fitter denomination. Its faults are indeed numerous; but the spirit and the independence which have dictated the Inquiry, in a great degree, compensate for them. The former may be removed by experience and attention, the latter are seldom acquired in advanced life; since the mind, which has been accustomed to trammels, loses its native dignity, and is destined to drudge on in the same abject slavery.

The outline of fevers is nearly that of Dr. Cullen, from whom he differs in some particulars; but he combats experience with reasoning, and strikes at facts with arguments. Thus he contends for the existence of a continent fever, because it may be plausibly explained; and denies that of critical days, chiefly because, in the repetition of paroxysms, there is no reason why one should terminate the fever rather than another. The proximate cause of fever is a subject too extensive for our discussion in this Journal: Dr. Dickinson is chiefly dissatisfied with Dr. Cullen's System, for not explaining more particularly the connection between the debility and spasm, or showing how the reaction is calculated to remove the atony. As the spasm also is an effort of nature, he seems surprised that it should be moderated or repressed. In its stead, he supposes that the proximate cause of fevers is debility only, and that to it, all our remedies should be applied. This leads to the free and indiscriminate use of bark and stimulants, including in the latter class, opium. We have frequently considered this subject, and have given our opinion on it. In both theory and practice the author totters on an unstable foundation: opium is not a stimulant, but in particular circumstances; and bark is probably as frequently injurious in continued fevers, not highly putrid, as useful. The subject may be brought to a short issue. Has any one, by the use of bark and opium, stopped a fever after it has been once formed, before the usual period of fourteen or twenty days? It has been asserted, that some have done so; but, when their steps have been accurately followed, the event has been very different.

After our author has been more accustomed to practice, he will be better able to chuse the oracles, whose dictates he should follow. Many of his authorities are very suspicious; some of them we know to be erroneous. On the subject of scurvy however,

ever, he chiefly rests on Dr. Lind; and his remarks on the cause of this disease are just and accurate. He combats this last branch of the humoral pathology, in our opinion, with success.

*Experiments on the Red and Quill Peruvian Bark: with Observations on its History, Mode of Operation, and Uses. By Ralph Irving. 8vo. 3s. in Boards. Robinson.*

This subject is almost exhausted: each practitioner has by this time decided; and we can no longer dwell on it. In these Experiments, which gained the Harveian prize, the red bark seemed the richest in resin, and the brittlest seemed the most active part of it. The pharmaceutic treatment of the bark in general, forms a considerable object of the author's attention; but of this we can only give a slender outline. The aromatic portion seems to be volatile; consequently the decoction contains the vegetable ingredients, in some degree disunited, and the resin in a great measure separates on cooling. In the infusion, the cohesion of the several parts is unchanged; and, in our author's opinion, this is the best preparation. The infusion in cold water is preferred; that in lime-water is much less strong, and probably less active; but the sweet spirit of vitriol adds to the power of simple water, as a menstruum. The author's experiments militate strongly, in almost every instance, against Dr. Percival's conclusions; and, on the subject of vegetable astringents, deserve attention. He clearly shows, that the change of colour, from the addition of a chalybeate, depends on many circumstances besides the strength of the infusion; probably also, it may depend on the nature of the water employed. We should have selected some of his observations on the astringent principle; but they do not, in their present state, admit of any very useful conclusion: there are few subjects which have yet been so little elucidated, though so much within our reach. It may be worth observing, that Mr. Irving thinks fixed air, as an acid, constitutes a great share of this principle; and that, with the essential oil, it 'may by some particular modification constitute the resin itself.' We would recommend the last hint to his future consideration.

In a late review of Dr. Kentish's pamphlet, our opinion on the comparative efficacy of the different preparations of the bark, differed from that of Dr. Kentish, which Mr. Irving follows. The accuracy of their experiments is admitted, but our conclusion is very different. We decided from their effects; and, though we have since that time more particularly attended to the subject, we find no reason for altering our opinion: perhaps the evolution of the active principles of the bark, in the decoction, may contribute to the efficacy of the preparation. It is however necessary to add, that both the infusion and decoction are very inferior in strength to the smallest dose of the substance; but few are aware that, in substance, the remedy is frequently neither digested nor carried off from the stomach. It lies like a heavy cold load, and adds to the complaint it was intended to remove.

In the author's examination into the mode of operation of the bark, he chiefly follows Dr. Cullen, in thinking that it acts by a tonic power. His account of the uses of his remedy is very concise, and neither new, or particularly interesting. On the whole, the Experiments deserve attention; and we are glad to see the Harveian medal prove so powerful, in drawing into action both genius and industry.

*A Tract upon Indigestion and the Hypochondriac Disease. By James Rymer, Surgeon. Small 8vo. 1s. Evans.*

The rules for dyspeptic patients, though not unexceptionable, are yet, on the whole, very proper. The author improves in his knowledge, in his language, and in worldly wisdom: for this little tract is only to introduce the use of his tincture, which is prepared by himself. This gives a questionable appearance to the most salutary lessons.

#### M I S C E L L A N E O U S.

*The Life of Samuel Johnson, LL.D. The Second Edition, with considerable Additions and Corrections. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Kearsley.*

As we did not particularly mention the errors of the first edition, we cannot be exact in enumerating the emendations: in general they are numerous, and the errors, of course, greatly diminished. The anecdotes give a very favourable view of Johnson's shrewdness and benevolence. The account of Dr. Levet is humorous, and in a very different style from other parts of the work.

“Dr. Robert Levet, to whom Dr. Johnson very humanely gave apartments in his house for upwards of [thirty] years, having most of his practice amongst the poor and middling ranks of life, used to accept of gin, brandy, or any other liquor offered him, in lieu of his fee, sooner than have his skill exerted without any recompence. This singularity Johnson used to rally with great pleasantry;—at one time he said, “though he hated inebriety, it was more excusable in Levet than in others, because he became intoxicated on principles of prudence, and when a man cannot get bread by his profession, perhaps he is pardonable to accept of drink.” At another time he would say,——“Had all Levet's patients maliciously combined to reward him with meat and strong liquors instead of money, he would either have burst, like the dragon in the Apocrypha, through reptation, or have been scorched up like Portia by swallowing fire.”

The following reply appeared shocking to Dr. Johnson; yet perhaps it has a merit which bons mots sometimes want, viz. truth.

“Among his singularities, his love of conversing with the prostitutes he met with in the streets, was not the least. He has been known to carry some of these unfortunate creatures into a tavern, for the sake of striving to awaken in them a proper sense of their condition. His younger friends, now and then, affected to tax him with less chastised intentions; but he would

would answer—"No, sir; we never proceed to the opus magnum. On the contrary, I have rather been disconcerted and shocked by the replies of these giddy wretches, than flattered or diverted by their tricks. I remember asking one of them, for what purpose she supposed her Maker had bestowed on her so much beauty. Her answer was—"To please the gentlemen to be sure; for what other use could it be given me?"

The Life, in its present state, is not an unpleasing performance, and tolerably correct; but the language is not very accurate: the whole is probably not sufficiently extended, or relieved with a proper portion of variety. Much still remains to be known; and we need not fear, that information will be sparingly bestowed. After this literary meal, we shall probably rather resemble the dragon in the Apocrypha, than the lean kine of Pharaoh.

*Historical Remarks and Anecdotes on the Castle of the Basile.* 8vo. 6d. Cadell.

This is a translation from the French formerly published, and for both which the public is indebted to Mr. Howard; whose motive was to excite in his countrymen a detestation of despotism, and a love for the laws which are the foundation of our liberty.

*Grammaticæ Quæstiones, or a Grammatical Examination, &c. By the Rev. Mr. Morgan.* 12mo. 1s. 6d. Cadell.

This publication is intended for the use of schools, particularly those where the Eton Grammar is taught. That it may be of service towards the object of its design, we have not any doubt; but its utility might have been rendered more general, by adapting it also to other grammars, and by accompanying it with notes, in which we are sorry it is defective.

## CORRESPONDENCE.

WE have received Dr. Reid's complaisant Letter; and find, on referring to his Essay, the MS. of Dr. Stark quoted in the twenty-sixth page. This circumstance we did not recollect, in our review of the 'Medical Communications,' in the last Number; and we may safely add, that we did not particularly observe the quotation, when we first read the Essay. Dr. Reid will recollect, that it is once only *transiently* referred to, in the middle of the chapter on Vomica; and we could not thence suppose that the *substance* of the whole chapter was taken from the manuscript. So much we would observe in our own defence: at the same time, we readily acquit Dr. Reid of endeavouring, unfairly, to appropriate the labours of another to himself. In this confidence, we shall wait for 'the work, preparing for the press,' in which it is explained, why the several passages taken from Dr. Stark were not 'marked with inverted commas.'



T H E

# CRITICAL REVIEW.

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For A P R I L, 1785.

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*Arctic Zoology. 2 Vols. 4to. 1l. 13s. 6d. in Boards: Large Paper 2l. 5s. in Boards. White.*

THIS work reflects considerable credit on its author, who has already been successful in the same pursuits. Mr. Pennant's first design was to become the zoologist of North America, while, as a Briton, he could lay some claim to the sovereignty of that vast tract; but since the revolutions on this continent have deprived him of his dominions, he is become a citizen of the world: he is now only confined by an imaginary limit, and occasionally steps beyond it. Perhaps, on account of his first disappointment, he seems to show, in every line where the subject will permit, the indignation and sorrow which he feels for the separation of America. To us, who wish to view every subject in the most pleasing light, there are many sources of consolation. The present work affords one, which though inconsiderable, is worth mentioning; for had the first design only been completed, we should probably have been deprived of a great share of the information and entertainment which we received from the introduction: not to add, that the pleasure which we always feel from accompanying our intelligent naturalist, must increase with the extent of his researches.

His first object was to describe the animals of North America only; but he has extended his plan to the farthest limits of the arctic world, including those of Kamtschatka and the western coasts of America. These he examines not merely as a naturalist, but frequently as a philosopher: an union which is always desirable, though it be not a very frequent occurrence. The introduction contains a fancied voyage, which has great merit, as it comprehends a philosophical description of the countries inhabited by those animals which the author afterwards describes. This kind of geography, though highly rational, and affording to the speculative mind great entertainment, has seldom been attended to. We gave a specimen

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of it in our review of captain Cook's last voyage; for we thought it would be a more instructive account of this celebrated navigator's great attempts, than we could give by extracting a description of the night-dance, or the procession of the chiefs of Owhyhee. To these articles, in the fifty-eighth Volume of our Journal, we shall have frequent occasion to refer. Our author sets out from London, and describes the eastern coasts of England and Scotland, the appearance of Shetland, the Feroe Islands, and Iceland, which he supposes, with great reason, to be the Ultima Thule. From thence he returns to the straits of Dover, and examines the opposite coasts of Flanders, Holland, Germany, and Jutland; the coasts of the Baltic, including the gulfs of Bothnia and Finland. He then goes along the winding and extensive coast of Norway, to the North Cape. From thence he 'takes his departure' for the Cherie islands, and Spitzbergen, and returns to the Cape, again to proceed in order to the White Sea, the mouth of the Lena, the Icy Sea, and Tschutski-nofs. From thence along a coast which we have already described, he extends his voyage to the southern extremity of Kamtschatka, examining the intermediate islands, and the famous strait. On the coast of America, he begins his description at California, and proceeds, in captain Cook's tract, to Icy Cape. From thence he steps to Coppermine river, to Greenland, and America: the survey of the eastern coast of America is finished at the Bay of Fundy.

This is an abstract of our author's philosophical voyage, which abounds with just reflections, accurate observations, and splendid descriptions, in his own peculiar energetic language. By a modern polish, the language would probably lose its force; but it would be also free from striking anomalies, both of spelling and construction. We agree with him in many respects, but sometimes think him mistaken. He chiefly fails, in considering the objects in detail, without observing the effects of each change on the neighbouring coasts. As our own situation is of the greatest consequence to us, we shall select a specimen from the first part; and it will give us an opportunity of explaining the objection which we have just mentioned.

'Let me take my departure northward, from the freights of Dover, the site of the isthmus of the once peninsulated Britain. No certain cause can be given for the mighty convulsion which tore us from the continent: whether it was rent by an earthquake, or whether it was worn through by the continual dashing of the waters, no Pythagoras is left to solve the *Fortuna locorum*:

'Vidi ego, quod fuerat quondam solidissima tellus  
Essi fretum.'

But it is probable, that the great philosopher alluded to the partial destruction of the Atlantica insula, mentioned by Plato as a distant tradition of his days. It was effected by an earthquake and a deluge, which might have rent asunder the narrow isthmus in question, and left Britain, large as it seems at present, the mere wreck of its original size. The Scilly isles, the Hebrides, Orknies, Schetland, and perhaps the Feroe islands, may possibly be no more than fragments of the once far-extended region. I have no quarrel about the word *island*. The little isthmus, compared to the whole, might have been a junction never attended to in the limited navigations of very early times. The peninsula had never been wholly explored, and it passed with the ancients for a genuine island. The correspondence of strata on part of the opposite shores of Britain and France, leaves no room to doubt but that they were once united. The chalky cliffs of Blancnez, between Calais and Bologne, and those to the westward of Dover, exactly tally; the last are vast and continued; the former short, and the termination of the immense bed. Between Bologne and Folkestone (about six miles from the latter) is another memorial of the junction of the two countries; a narrow submarine hill, called the Rip-raps, about a quarter of a mile broad, and ten miles long, extending eastwards towards the Goodwin Sands. Its materials are boulder-stones, adventitious to many strata. The depth of water on it, in very low spring tides, is only fourteen feet. The fishermen from Folkestone have often touched it with a fifteen feet oar; so that it is justly the dread of navigators. Many a tall ship has perished on it, and sunk instantly into twenty-one fathoms water. In July 1782, the Bellise of sixty-four guns struck, and lay on it during three hours; but by starting her beer and water, got clear off.

If we survey the situation of England and Ireland, we shall find vast bays on the western side, trending west and north-west. The chain of islands from Ireland to Iceland; including the western islands of Scotland and the isles of Feroe, are obviously the remains of a vast continent, partly overwhelmed, and of which the highest lands are only visible. This is the opinion of our author; and it is so obvious from inspection only, that it could not escape a philosophical geographer: it is confirmed by the enquiries of the mineralogist, who generally finds the sides abrupt and craggy, and the strata frequently corresponding to those of the neighbouring island. We have already remarked, that there seems to have been a continued motion of the sea, from the equator to the poles; and, from the situation of our island, this motion must increase the impetus of the sea on its western coast; for, whether by increasing the bulk, and consequently the momentum of the northern Atlantic, it acts directly on the shore, or rever-

berating from the solid barrier of the frozen Ocean, it indirectly increases the impetus; yet in either way, it must produce the same effect. In this view then, we must consider the British Channel as a vast bay, in which the sea has followed its usual course. In every part of the English shore we find marks of an incroaching tide; and the rocks of Guernsey consist of primæval granite, which composes so large a share of the adjoining continent. The German Ocean was another bay, in a contrary direction, derived from the reverberated current; and the old isthmus, as Mr. Pennant observes, was broken through by the united force of those opposite tides. But we cannot think that it was chiefly effected by the northern current, though the tides at present meet in the English channel; for we are informed by Dr. Wallis, that they formerly met in the German Ocean, and, by their concurrence, formed the Dogger Banks, off the coast of Zealand. To allege that the reverberated current was not so strong as the direct, might be an unfair argument, because it depends on our own opinion; but there are better proofs of its inferior power, viz. the want of harbours on the eastern coast, which Mr. Pennant has properly noticed, without any view towards an hypothesis; and the existence of considerable flat grounds on the same coast, now forsaken by the sea. Mr. Pennant has mentioned, that the destruction of the isthmus must have occasioned the sea to have retired from those flat grounds which it had occupied before that event; but we think the consequences must have been more extensive. On the flat parts of the *western* coast we find marine bodies, and are consequently led to suspect, that the formation of the British Channel must have contributed to drain them, though it would not affect the deeper harbours. Again, it is highly probable, that the same convulsion must have lessened the force with which the tide was driven up the Baltic, and contributed to draw off the waters reverberated from the icy barrier, so as to lessen the White Sea. By these united causes, the gulfs of Bothnia and Finland were produced, which had been before straits, and formed a marine communication between the German and Arctic Oceans, to the East of the north cape. On the coasts of Kent, the changes we have mentioned are evident; and the fluxes and the refluxes of the tide seem to have raised the land very considerably. In our late review of the Philosophical Transactions, we mentioned the vast depth at which the water was at last found in Languard fort. The superincumbent parts were sand and clay; and that the water was pressed and confined by additional weight, is evident from the fact, that  
when



when the workmen arrived at the spring, it soon arose to the level of the present surface.

This separation certainly happened beyond the reach of historical records, though Dr. Wallis is willing to believe that it gave occasion to Plato's account of the submersion of his famous Atlantica. We readily believe that this history is not entirely fabulous; and that a vast peninsula, separated from the continent, may at a distant period, and in other countries, have been exaggerated into an event, similar to that which he has related; but there are some circumstances in the history which do not properly suit with this event. Plato expressly says, that *his* Atlantica was five days sail from the British island; and that the sun did not set there for thirty days together. These two distinctions seem to point out some country far north of the extremes of Britain.

This enquiry has led us so far, that we can only remark in general on the other parts of our author's imaginary voyage. If his observations respecting the extensive woods of the northern islands are well founded, we must suppose that they were once a part of the main land, or that some species of trees, which are now extinct, but which were capable of bearing both the spray from the billows, and the great cold, then existed. Either of these circumstances are highly probable; but we have known some instances where fossils have been mistaken for wood; and would recommend a farther examination of these apparent trees.

Mr. Pennant still adheres to the former opinion, that America was peopled from the eastern coast of Asia; and his authority has induced us again to examine the question, with all the necessary attention. But we see not the least reason to change our sentiments. Naturalists must at last decide. It is sufficient to allege, that the present inhabitants of the opposite continents are very different from each other. The Americans in that part resemble the Greenlanders; and this race at Nootka Sound joins another different from *it*, and from all the inhabitants of Asia. Mr. Pennant has selected those customs which are similar; but they are so general, as to destroy even the probability that one nation is derived from the other.

There is another subject, on which we differ from Mr. Pennant and some other philosophers of considerable judgment, viz. the former situation of the adjoining continents of Asia and America. He thinks that they were once nearer to each other; but, in the ninety-first page of the volume before referred to, we stated the reasons which we thought supported the opposite opinion. If our author wishes to establish by this

means, his sentiments respecting the population of America, he must be aware, that this distance is not too great to confine the inhabitants; but that even a less would prevent the passage of many animals. If we examine these, and their several natures, we shall find the source of population still more obscure than before. We need not again allege the reasons for our opinion, and we have little to add to them. It is probable, that the general effect of volcanos is to raise the land above its ordinary level, and consequently to gain upon the sea; if this be the case, we shall find on the shores of both continents, marks of these operations. It is equally certain, that they sometimes contribute, by altering the balance, to produce the opposite effect; but, so far as we can perceive, they gain on the land in those spots on which their ravages are exerted, and the inundations are in more distant places.

It is with more reason, that our author supposes a great part of North America to be gained from the sea; and this has been chiefly effected by the sea bursting through the land to the south of Florida, so as to form the gulph of Mexico, leaving only the high grounds in the form of islands, the greater and less Antilles, or, as we choose to call them, the Windward and Leeward Islands. This dereliction is particularly perceived on the neighbouring coasts of the Floridas and Carolinas; but is obvious in very distant countries. We suspect, with our author, that America is a new world, in more senses than is commonly understood. The following description is highly curious; and the reader will perceive, that it may be employed to establish some very important questions.

‘I must here mention the adventitious fruits, such as nuts and other vegetable productions which are brought by the waves to these shores, those of Feroe and the Orknies, from Jamaica and other neighbouring parts. We must have recourse to a cause very remote from this place. Their vehicle is the gulph-stream from the gulph of Mexico. The trade-winds force the great body of the ocean from the westward through the Antilles into that gulph, when it is forced backward along the shore from the mouth of the Mississippi to Cape Florida; doubles that Cape in the narrow sea between it and Cuba, and from Cape Florida to Cape Cannaveral runs nearly north, at the distance of from five to seven leagues from shore, and extends in breadth from fifteen to eighteen leagues. There are regular soundings from the land to the edge of the stream, where the depth is generally seventy fathoms; after that no bottom can be found. The soundings of Cape Cannaveral are very steep and uncertain, as the water shallows so quick, that from forty fathoms it will immediately lessen to fifteen, and from that to four or less; so that, without great care, a ship may be in a few minutes on shore.

shore. It must be observed, that notwithstanding the gulph-stream in general is said to begin where soundings end, yet its influence extends several leagues within the soundings; and vessels often find a considerable current setting to the northward all along the coast, till they get into eight or ten fathom water, even where the soundings stretch to twenty leagues from the shore; but their current is generally augmented or lessened by the prevailing winds, the force of which however, can but little affect the grand unfathomable stream. From Cape Canaveral to Cape Hatteras the soundings begin to widen in the extent of their run from the shore to the inner edge of the stream, the distance being generally near twenty leagues, and the soundings very regular to about seventy fathoms near the edge of the stream, where no bottom can be afterwards found. Abreast of Savannah river, the current sets nearly north; after which, as if from a bay, it stretches north-east to Cape Hatteras; and from thence it sets east-north-east, till it has lost its force. As Cape Hatteras runs a great way into the sea, the edge of the stream is only from five to seven leagues distant from the cape; and the force and rapidity of the main stream has such influence, within that distance, over ships bound to the southward, that in very high foul winds, or in calms, they have frequently been hurried back to the northward, which has often occasioned great disappointment both to merchant ships and to men of war, as was often experienced in the late war. In December 1754, an exceeding good sailing ship, bound from Philadelphia to Charlestown, got abreast of Cape Hatteras every day during thirteen days, sometimes even with the tide, and in a middle distance between the cape and the inner edge of the stream; yet the ship was forced back regularly, and could only recover its lost way with the morning breeze, till the fourteenth day, when a brisk gale helped it to stem the current, and get to the southward of the cape. This shews the impossibility of any thing which has fallen into the stream returning or stopping in its course.

On the outside of the stream is a strong eddy or contrary current towards the ocean; and on the inside, next to America, a strong tide sets against it. When it sets off from Cape Hatteras, it takes a current nearly north-east; but in its course meets a great current that sets from the north, and probably comes from Hudson's Bay, along the coast of Labrador, till the island of Newfoundland divides it; part setting along the coast through the straits of Belleisle, and sweeping past Cape Breton, runs obliquely against the gulph-stream, and gives it a more eastern direction: the other part of the northern current is thought to join it on the eastern side of Newfoundland. The influence of these joint currents must be far felt; yet possibly its force is not so great, nor contracted in such a pointed and circumscribed direction as before they encountered. The prevailing winds all over this part of the ocean are the west an

north-west, and consequently the whole body of the western ocean seems, from their influence, to have what the mariners call a *set* to the eastward, or to the north-east-by-east. Thus the productions of Jamaica, and other places bordering on the gulph of Mexico, may be first brought by the stream out of the gulph, enveloped in the fargasso or alga of the gulph round Cape Florida, and hurried by the current either along the American shore, or sent into the ocean in the course along the stream, and then by the set of the stream; and the prevailing winds, which generally blow two-thirds of the year, waisted to the shores of Europe, where they are found.

‘The mast of the Tilbury man of war, burnt at Jamaica, was thus conveyed to the western side of Scotland; and among the amazing quantity of drift-wood, or timber, annually flung on the coasts of Ireland, are some species which grow in Virginia and Carolina. All the great rivers of those countries contribute their share; the Alatomwha, Santee, and Roanok, and all the rivers which flow into the Chesapeake, send down in floods numberless trees; but Iceland is also obliged to Europe for much of its drift-wood; for the common pine, fir, lime, and willows, are among those enumerated by Mr. Troille; all which, probably, were waisted from Norway.’

The extent of this quotation will prevent us from adding much more from our intelligent author; but we must not, in justice, leave him without a short specimen of his descriptive powers. We shall afterwards pursue this work in a future Number.

‘The vast height of the precipices, and the amazing grandeur of the caverns which open on the north side, giving wide and solemn admission, through most exalted arches, into the body of the mountain; together with the gradual decline of light, the deep silence of the place unless interrupted by the striking of the oar, the collision of a swelling wave against the sides, or the loud flutter of the pigeons affrighted from their nests in the distant roof; afford pleasures of scenery which such formations as this alone can yield. These also are wonderfully diversified. In some parts the caverns penetrate far, and end in darkness; in others are pervious, and give a romantic passage by another opening equally superb. Many of the rocks are insulated, of a pyramidal form, and soar to a great height. The bases of most are solid; but in some pierced through and arched. All are covered with the dung of the innumerable flocks of migratory birds which resort here annually to breed, and fill every little projection, every hole, which will give them leave to rest. Multitudes were swimming about; others swarmed in the air, and runned us with the variety of their croaks and screams. Kittiwakes and herring-gulls, guillemots and black guillemots, auks, puffins, shags, and corverants, are among the species which resort hither. The notes of all sea-fowl are most harsh

harsh and inharmonious. I have often rested under rocks like these, attentive to the various sounds over my head; which, mixed with the deep roar of the waves slowly swelling, and retiring from the vast caverns beneath, have produced a fine effect. The sharp voice of the gulls, the frequent chatter of the guillemots, the loud notes of the auks, the scream of the herons, together with the deep periodical croak of the corvorants, which serves as a bass to the rest, have often furnished me with a concert, which joined to the wild scenery surrounding me, afforded in an high degree that species of pleasure which results from the novelty and the gloomy majesty of the entertainment.

[*To be continued.*]

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*Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London. Vol. LXXIV. For the Year 1784. Part I. (Concluded, from p. 167.)*

Article XIII. Experiments on Air. By Henry Cavendish, Esq. F. R. S. and S. A.—There is considerable information to be derived from these experiments, which are new, original, and frequently conclusive. Mr. Kirwan objects only to one part; and, though it be a leading one, we think that the controversy is now nearly brought to one point, to be decided by experiment. The author's first object is, to enquire into the loss of the air, diminished by phlogification; and the next to examine the form which it puts on. It was the opinion of Dr. Priestley, that, in the process of phlogification, fixed air was *precipitated* from that which was changed: the French philosophers have since suspected, that no fixed air enters into the composition of atmospheric air, as a mixt; but that a small proportion is only accidentally combined with it; and that, if any fixed air is discovered, it is generated rather than separated. Mr. Cavendish, in the paper before us, denies that any fixed air is produced by phlogification of common air, except what may appear from its accidental impurities, or be contained in the substances employed for the experiment. The air, for instance, phlogified by the burning or distillation of animal and vegetable substances, is contaminated by fixed air, from the bodies themselves; but the calcination of metals, burning of sulphur or phosphorus, the mixture of common and nitrous air, and the explosion of inflammable air, are not equally liable to exception. These processes he therefore examines in their order.

When these more certain experiments were made with accuracy, there was no reason to suspect that the diminution of the air was owing to the separation or production of fixed air; so that, after mentioning them, Mr. Cavendish soon proceeds to the second part, viz. to enquire into the cause of the dimi-

diminution. As there seemed great reason to think, that both the nitrous and vitriolic acids were convertible into dephlogisticated air, Mr. Cavendish enquired whether the pure air might not, by phlogistication, be changed into either of these acids. But, on examination, the suspicion proved to be without foundation. In the course of it, the author recommends to the attention of chemists, the neutrals formed by phlogisticated acids; and finds, from some of the results, that the acid in nitrous air is nearly twice as strong as in any other form. The cause of the diminution was, with greater probability, suspected to be a conversion of the pure air (a term which we shall use in future instead of *dephlogisticated*) into water. When common and inflammable air were exploded together, a loss of weight is said to have been observed, and the vessel employed to have been covered with a copious dew. In Mr. Cavendish's experiment the weight was not altered; but the dew was very conspicuous. We suspect however some inattention, for, in our experiment, the weight was really diminished; and as it involves some important consequences, we would recommend another trial. There is one circumstance worth remarking: when pure and inflammable air are used, the water is acid; but with common air it is free from every impregnation. The acidity is afterwards found to depend on the degree of phlogistication of the air: when it is entirely phlogisticated, the water is quite pure, and all the inflammable air, with one-fifth of the common air employed, seems to be converted into water.

To explain the appearance of the acid, we must premise some observations, from Mr. Cavendish's article.

Before I enter into the cause of these phenomena, it will be proper to take notice, that phlogisticated air appears to be nothing else than the nitrous acid united to phlogiston; for when nitre is deflagrated with charcoal, the acid is almost entirely converted into this kind of air. That the acid is entirely converted into air, appears from the common process for making what is called clyffus of nitre; for if the nitre and charcoal are dry, scarce any thing is found in the vessels prepared for condensing the fumes; but if they are moist a little liquor is collected, which is nothing but the water contained in the materials, impregnated with a little alkali, proceeding in all probability from the imperfectly burnt charcoal, and a little fixed alkali, consisting of some of the alkalized nitre carried over by the heat and watery vapours. As far as I can perceive too, at present, the air into which much of the greatest part of the acid is converted, differs in no respect from the common air, which is phlogisticated. A small part of the acid, however, is turned into nitrous air, and the whole is mixed with a good deal

deal of fixed, and perhaps a little inflammable air; both proceeding from the charcoal.

‘It is well known that the nitrous acid is also converted by phlogification into nitrous air, in which respect there seems a considerable analogy between that and the vitriolic acid; for the vitriolic acid, when united to a smaller proportion of phlogiston, forms the volatile sulphureous acid and vitriolic acid air, both of which by exposure to the atmosphere, lose their phlogiston, though not very fast, and are turned back into vitriolic acid; but, when united to a greater proportion of phlogiston, it forms sulphur, which shews no sign of acidity, unless a small degree of affinity to alkalies can be called so, and in which the phlogiston is more strongly adherent, so that it does not fly off when exposed to the air, unless assisted by a heat sufficient to set it on fire. In like manner the nitrous acid, united to a certain quantity of phlogiston, forms nitrous fumes and nitrous air, which readily quit their phlogiston to common air; but when united to a different, in all probability a larger quantity, it forms phlogificated air, which shews no sign of acidity, and is still less disposed to part with its phlogiston, than sulphur.’

If this be true, it will be evident, that while any air remains pure, it will attract the phlogiston and precipitate the nitrous acid, of which kind the acid always appears to be, even when the air is procured from turbitb mineral. The consequence, which Mr. Cavendish draws from all his experiments is, that water is in an intermediate state between pure and inflammable air. Pure air, with a small proportion of phlogiston, becomes water; with a greater, inflammable air. We have stated this as the more probable of the two suppositions made by our author, and that which he seems inclined to adopt; and it will be obvious, from the circumstances of Dr. Priestley’s method of reviving calces of metals by inflammable air alone, that this opinion cannot be greatly influenced by those experiments: if the water were really a component part of inflammable air, it would either continue in that form, or be deprived of its phlogiston by the metal, become pure air and be absorbed.

We have given a more extensive account of this paper than usual, because we think it will produce a material change in the opinions of philosophers; but we must be very short in what remains. Mr. Cavendish next endeavours to shew how acids act in producing dephlogificated air. It is not, he thinks, that they themselves suffer any immediate change; but only attract phlogiston from water and other substances, of which they are very greedy. Though we apply the generic term air, both to the pure and noxious kinds, he suspects that they are very different, and that common air is formed from  
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the union of both.—This, among other proofs, appears from the effect of phlogisticating very pure air; for, in that experiment, it is not become noxious, but disappears and assumes the form of water.

‘It was just said, observes our author, that the same dephlogisticated air was reduced by liver of sulphur to  $\frac{1}{30}$  of its original bulk; the standard of the air was 4,8, and consequently the standard of perfectly pure dephlogisticated air should be very nearly 5, which is a confirmation of the foregoing opinion; for if the standard of pure dephlogisticated air is 5, common air must, according to this opinion, contain one-fifth of it, and therefore ought to lose one-fifth of its bulk by phlogistication, which is what it is actually found to lose.’

The paper is concluded with some remarks on the mode by which light produces pure air from vegetables, viz. by enabling bodies to absorb phlogiston, from others less exposed to its influence. From an examination of some facts it appears probable, that light does not actually communicate phlogiston.

Art. XIV. Remarks on Mr. Cavendish’s Experiments on Air. By Richard Kirwan, Esq. F. R. S. and S. A.—

Art. XV. Answer to Mr. Kirwan’s Remarks upon the Experiments on Air. By Henry Cavendish, Esq. F. R. S. and S. A.—

Art. XVI. Reply to Mr. Cavendish’s Answer. By Richard Kirwan, Esq. F. R. S. and S. A.—

Mr. Kirwan, who, in a former volume of the *Philosophical Transactions*, attributed the diminution of the air in phlogistic processes to the separation or formation of fixed air, thinks it necessary to assign the reasons why he continues in the same sentiments. He first examines the process of the calcination of metals, and, as he finds fixed air in the calces, he is still of opinion that it is derived from the common air changed in the operation. It cannot be derived from the fixed air accidentally floating in the atmosphere, for that is in small quantity; what is generated or let loose soon disappears, and mercurius præcipitatus per se, and lime lose, instead of gaining it, from calcination. The appearance of pure air, from some calces, Mr. Kirwan has already explained to happen in consequence of a decomposition of the fixed air: the phlogiston contributing to revive the metal, and the air escaping in a pure state. This is indeed highly probable from its occurring only in calces, so very easily reduced to a metallic form, and is rendered more so, from a pointed experiment of Dr. Priestley. A decisive one from Mr. Laffonne is then mentioned, which we shall particularly transcribe.



‘If filings of zinc be digested in a caustic fixed alkali in a gentle heat, the zinc will be dissolved with effervescence, and the alkali will be rendered in a great measure mild. But if, instead of filings of zinc, flowers of zinc be used, and treated in the same manner, there will be no solution, and the alkali will remain caustic. In the first case the effervescence arises from the production of inflammable air, which phlogisticates the common air contiguous to it, and produces fixed air, which is immediately absorbed by the alkali, and renders it mild. In the second case, no inflammable air is produced, the common air is not phlogisticated, and consequently the alkali remains caustic.’

Mr. Cavendish, in his reply, observes that the mildness of the alkali, in this instance, was only ascertained by its making a slight effervescence with an acid, which might arise from a separation of inflammable air from the metal; but Mr. Kirwan rejoins, that this is not probable, since the zinc was precipitated by adding the acid; and it is more likely that, as it was added slowly, it should attach the alkali than the metal.

The next process which occurs, is the mixture of common and nitrous airs. The fixed air, in Mr. Kirwan’s opinion, does not appear in this instance, because it is united to the nitrous selenite, which seems, from an analogous experiment, capable of absorbing so much air as would prevent the lime-water from becoming turbid; but, on varying it, the appearance was not so obvious. Mr. Kirwan, in answer to this fact, thinks, that fixed air, in a *nascent* state, is more capable of being absorbed than at any future period. When nitrous and common air are mixed over mercury, no diminution takes place till water is admitted; therefore, says Mr. Kirwan, the pure air is not changed into water.—Not on that account, replies Mr. Cavendish, but because the nitrous vapour is condensed only by means of water. It cannot be vapour, rejoins Mr. Kirwan, because it is not condensed by cold.

The black powder, produced by separating lead from mercury, by means of shaking it in water, is now found actually to produce fixed air; so that we need not dwell on the dispute occasioned by this circumstance.

Mr. Kirwan had alledged, that red precipitate, combined with iron filings, would produce fixed air. Mr. Cavendish, with reason, considers it as a very material fact, but attributes the fixed air to the plumbago contained in the iron, of which a large portion is air of this kind. In pursuing this idea, he actually found more fixed air from the plumbago, separated from a given quantity of iron-filings, than when the same quan-

quantity of the filings themselves were employed. Mr. Kirwan rejoins, that more fixed air is found in this experiment, than is usually in the largest proportion of plumbago ever found in iron.

We have thus given an impartial outline of the more important parts of this controversy, from respect to the knowledge and abilities of the opponents. There are some other matters in dispute of less moment, which we cannot enlarge on. On this subject we ought not to decide, yet perhaps we may be allowed to add a few observations.

It will be obvious, that to determine a dispute of this sort, the nature of fixed air should be better understood. Mr. Kirwan always refers to Dr. Black's opinion of its being common air, combined with phlogiston; but to this there are many obvious objections, and Mr. Cavendish has not given his sentiments on it. On the whole, the existence of a doubt is rather an argument against Mr. Kirwan: a general law will appear in every instance; and there are many where no fixed air appears from phlogistification. Mr. Kirwan's answer on the subject of nitrous selenite is, we think, a tacit confession that fixed air is probably not formed in that process. The only experiment that will decidedly determine the dispute is, the calcination of metals in close vessels. If fixed air then appears, it will be probably derived from the air around, either changed by phlogistification, or modified by its connection with the calx. The examination of each supposition will materially elucidate the nature of this peculiar air, which, though first observed, is probably less understood than any other. But there is another view which may be taken of the same subject. We now see different substances, which we have usually examined as solid, put on the appearance of vapour; and it is highly probable, that many of the different airs have no more connection with common air, than one solid with another: they may agree in form, and be essentially different in substance. The great source of fixed air is the mineral kingdom, from whence it seems to be carried into the constitution of vegetables and animals; and probably some future experiments may find it to be a well-known substance, in a peculiar disguise. We should therefore be cautious in limiting our enquiries, and instead of looking up to the atmosphere alone for the origin of this species of air, we should vary our experiments, so as at last to detect the general law of nature from the midst of its numerous exceptions.

*Poetry, by Richard Crashaw, who was a Canon in the Chapel of Loretto.* Small 8vo. 3s. sewed. Bell.

**C**rashaw lived before the middle of the last century. His works, now become scarce, are published by Mr. Peregrine Phillips, attorney at law (as he thinks proper to tell us), 'author of the Brighthelmstone Diary, &c. &c.' If Mr. Phillips had only multiplied the copies of a good writer, he would have deserved the thanks of the literary world; but, as he has brought an accusation of plagiarism against two of our greatest poets, it is necessary to examine how far they are guilty of the charge, and either to condemn them or their accuser.

'Something is due, he says, to works of merit, if not to the authors; and though it may be deemed wonderful, that writers of eminence in the English language, should have joined in a poetical confederacy, to divest this poor gentleman of his rights, and dress themselves in his borrowed robes, without the smallest acknowledgment; yet, how much will the wonder encrease, when the sweetest versifier, declaredly at least of the same persuasion, is found among the number; for whoever reads Mr. Pope's epitaph on Elijah Fenton, will be obliged to confess, that he has not only adopted the thoughts, but in some places the very words, of our author's epitaph on Mr. Ashton: Pope's feint praise might therefore be the most probable means of secreting his obligations to one, whom he affects rather to condemn, which appears by his epistolary correspondence, upon this subject, with H. Cromwell, esq. for the sake of candor it is subjoined: nor is this all, for Milton sold his copy of the *Paradise Lost*, April 27, 1667, above twenty years after the first appearance of Crashaw's *Sospetto D'Herode*, and the reader will discover how serviceable to that sublime writer it must have been: with sorrow we are constrained to add, he will not discover, that the service derived, or even the name of the author, was ever acknowledged: Dr. Young, Mr. Grey, and many other celebrated British poets, are in the same predicament; but to particularize further would be, in some degree, an insult to the intelligent reader; besides, this inquiry is instituted more to do justice, than to arraign; and happy is it for this enlightened age, that the present æra of religious moderation, will allow an administration of justice to the long-since departed.'

We will first examine the charge against Milton. Crashaw shews you plainly the 'devil in hell;' Milton pours 'Satan in the infernal regions.' In the former he is the ugly, stinking, deformed, tooth-tail and claw devil, of old women and children; in the latter, he is 'no less than arch-angel ruined.' If Milton had received *all* his information concern-

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ing the infernal spirit from Crashaw, was there no merit in the imitation being so vastly superior to the original? Though the description in Crashaw is turgid, bombast, and ridiculous, yet there are many lines which are truly sublime, and of which Milton has made that justifiable use which one poet has ever made of another.

But the charge against Pope is more pointed and particular. His epitaph on Elijah Fenton is confessedly borrowed from that of Mr. Ashton. Mr. Pope has taken it without making his acknowledgments; and, if it was a fault, let Pope suffer for it. But pray, Mr. Phillips, is the taking another man's thoughts, unacknowledged, so great a crime? Consider, before you pronounce sentence. When we read your address to the reader, we recognised some passages in it extremely like what we recollected in a work we have had occasion to mention with respect, we mean the *Thirty Letters on various Subjects*. 'Was it from never reading Quarles, or taking his character from common report, that Pope considered his productions as the very bathos of poetry? Poor Quarles! thou hast had many enemies, and art now forgotten. But thou hast at last found a friend,—not equal indeed to the task of turning the tide, which has been flowing for an hundred years against thee,—not equal to his wishes for giving thee, and every neglected genius, his due share of reputation, but barely capable of laying the first stone of thy temple of fame, which he leaves to be completed by abler and by stronger hands.'

Now, sir, when you say *poor Crashaw*, to have not only the reputation, &c.—Mr. Pope led the *fashion*, &c.—'Truth will prevail, and *abler* advocates may be stimulated to assist in restoring literary merit to its proper station in the *temple of fame*, without respect,' &c. is it possible not to see in whose fields you have been poaching? If then you will acquit Mr. Pope of unfair imitation, we will return the compliment.—With regard to Young and Gray, we plead *ignoramus*: we cannot trace any resemblance.

Pope's opinion of Crashaw is nearly our own, so that we shall transcribe it.

'This author formed himself upon Petrarch, or rather upon Marino. His thoughts, one may observe, in the main, are pretty; but often-times far fetched, and too often strained and stiffened to make them appear the greater. For men are never so apt to think a thing great, as when it is odd or wonderful; and inconsiderate authors would rather be admired than understood. This ambition of surprising a reader, is the true natural cause of all fustian, or bombast in poetry.'

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The best complete poem of Crafshaw is that in praise of  
'Lessus, his Rule of Health,' which we will insert as a specimen of his abilities.

'Go now, with some daring drug;  
Bait the disease, and while they tug,  
Thou to maintain their cruel strife;  
Spend'st the dear treasure of thy life:  
Go, take physic, doat upon  
Some big-nam'd composition,  
The oraculous doctor's mystic bills,  
Certain hard words made into pills:  
And what at length shalt get by these?  
Only a costlier disease.

Go, poor man, think what shalt be,  
Remedy against thy remedy:  
That which makes us have no need  
Of physic, that's physic indeed.

'Hark hither, reader, would'st thou see,  
Nature her own physician be;  
Would'st see a man, all his own wealth,  
His own physic, his own health?  
A man, whose sober soul can tell,  
How to wear her garments well?  
Her garments that upon her sit,  
As garments should do, close and fit?  
A well cloth'd soul that's not oppress'd,  
Nor choak'd with what she should be dress'd?  
A soul sheath'd in a crystal shrine,  
Through which all her bright features shine?  
As when a piece of wanton lawn,  
A thin æreal vail is drawn  
O'er beauty's face, seeming to hide,  
More sweetly shews the blushing bride.  
A soul whose intellectual beams,  
No mists do mask, no lazy steams?  
A happy soul, that all the way  
To heaven hath a summer's day?  
Would'st see a man, whose well warm'd blood,  
Bathes him in a genuine flood?  
A man, whose tuned humours be,  
A set of rarest harmony?  
Would'st see blithe looks, fresh cheeks beguile  
Age? would'st see December smile?  
Would'st see a nest of roses grow,  
In a bed of reverend snow?  
Warm thoughts, free spirits, flattering  
Winter's self into a spring?  
In sum would'st see a man, that can  
Live to be old, and still a man!

Whole lateſt, and moſt leaden hours,  
 Fall with ſoft wings, ſtuck with ſoft ſlow'rs;  
 And, when life's ſweet fable ends,  
 Soul and body part like friends :—  
 No quarrels, murmurs, no delay ;  
 A kiſs, a ſigh, and—ſo away !  
 This rare one reader, would'ſt thou ſee,  
 Hark hither ; and—thyſelf be he !

If about thirty lines were omitted from *Muſic's Duel*,  
 (a tranſlation from *Strada*) the remainder would be ſtill long  
 enough for the ſubject, and poſſeſs infinite merit.

*The Poetical Works of Samuel Johnson, LL. D. Now firſt  
 Collected into One Volume. Small 8vo. 2s. 6d. ſew'd. Kearsley.*

THE poetical works of Dr. Johnson were generally publiſhed as fugitive pieces, and conſequently were not ſubjected to our notice ; but, at preſent, they are collected into a more ſubſtantial form, and of courſe claim our attention. To preſerve the character of impartiality, we will ſuppoſe this volume, ſo far as circumſtances will permit, to be a new publication, and Dr. Johnson's name hitherto unknown to us. The firſt in this collection is entitled '*LONDON*,' and is written in imitation of the third ſatire of Juvenal ; the ſecond, '*the VANITY OF HUMAN WISHES*,' an imitation of the tenth. The plan of theſe ſatires ſeems to have been ſuggeſted by Mr. Pope's very ſucceſsful imitations of Horace. As they are of the ſame kind, and were publiſhed at no very diſtant period, it is fair to compare the performances of the two poets ; and, in this comparison, we find the imitations of Horace infinitely ſuperior to thoſe of Juvenal. Johnson had not the genius of Pope, and entirely wanted his facility, which indeed nothing but great practice could give. In Pope, the moſt peculiar images of Roman life are adapted with ſingular addreſs to our own times : in Johnson, the ſimilitude is only in general paſſages, ſuitable to every age, in which refinement has degenerated into depravity. However, ſome of the imitations are very happy, and many of the lines are neither deficient in eaſe or energy. The following paſſage is, in our opinion, an inſtance of theſe ſeveral merits.

\* *Ingenium velox, audacia perdita, fermo  
 Promptus—*

*Augur, ſchoenobates, medicus, magus, omnia novit,  
 Græculus eſuriens, in ſcalum, juſſeris, ſiſt.*

' All that at home no more can beg or steal;  
Or like a gibbet better than a wheel;  
His'd from the stage, or hoated from the court;  
Their air, their dress, their politicks import;  
Obsequious, artful, voluble and gay,  
On Britain's fond credulity they prey.  
No gainful trade their industry can 'scape,  
They sing, they dance, clean shoes, or sure a clasp:  
All sciences a fasting monsieur knows,  
And bid him go to hell, to hell he goes.'

It is remarkable that the original of the second satire is not printed in this edition, for the imitation appears to be more close than in the first.

The tragedy of *IRENE* follows these two poems. As it is not uncommon to find entertainment in the closet, from plays which did not afford it on the stage, we hoped that *Irene* might be of this number: but we confess our disappointment. The piece contains many moral sentiments well expressed; nor is it without merit of another kind, though deficient in the grand qualification of dramatic poetry. It has nothing to interest the heart; or engage the attention; and we were surprised to hear a man of Johnson's knowledge speak of a *queen of Turkey*.

' Spring, an Ode,' is written in a more pleasing manner than any thing preceding it. Many of the Stanzas are exceedingly beautiful; as usual moral, and unusually pathetic.

' The Midsummer Wish,' (erroneously printed *Midsummer's*) is very inferior. It concludes with these lines;

' Sink on the down of Stella's breast,  
And bid the waking world farewell.'

Jupiter became a swan to gain Leda; and Stella suffered a similar transformation to please her lover. Dr. Johnson would have told an inferior poet, that to 'sink on the down of Stella's breast,' was not the same as to sleep on Stella's downy breast.—There is a poem by the author of the *Fair Circassian*, which, by the title and other resemblances, seems to be the original of this before us; but it is greatly superior.

' Autumn, an Ode,' is better than the preceding; and contains many beautiful lines, though it detracts from the beauty of an English autumn. But we ought not to blame him on this account, since he abuses himself; for he is the last man who would have sought a refuge in wine for the troubles of life.

' Winter' resembles 'Autumn' in its beauties and defects. It again celebrates the praises of wine, and we again observe,

that Dr. Johnson was no drinker. 'The Winter's Walk' is much superior; but the second stanza is unintelligible, from 'thought' being printed for *through*, and 'in' for *is*.

The 'Song' is not much superior to other songs: we should scarcely have expected any thing so flimsy from our author, in his lightest moments. 'The Evening Ode,' 'the Natural Beauty,' and 'the Vanity of Wealth,' are in general elegant. The first was probably written in a town: 'purple wings' and 'curling streams,' are not images peculiar to that time.

' In his stead (the Sun's) the queen of night  
Round us pours a lambent light;  
Light that seems but just to show  
Breasts that beat and cheeks that glow.'

This is an exquisite description; but the poem seems to have been the production of our author's youth. It is seldom we talk so feelingly from recollection.

The three next poems are occasional, and of course derive their merit, chiefly from local and temporary circumstances. The principal art, in similar performances, is to make a trifling circumstance poetical or witty. The doctor has very happily succeeded, especially in the last 'On the Sprig of Myrtle.'

'Stella in Mourning,' the verses to Lady Firebrace,' and 'to an elderly Lady,' are also occasional; but their merit is not considerable. The Prologues have been already reviewed by the public. They are scarcely objects of our attention; and we can only observe, that they are copies of Johnson's mind, clear and comprehensive, pointed and energetic.

The translation of the Messiah gained him reputation in the college in which it was written, and was approved of by the original author. The most exceptionable line is the first:— 'tollere concentum,' if allowable, is surely an aukward phrase for 'begin the song.' We recollect no authority for the use of 'tollere' in this sense.

The poem on the Death of Dr. Levet, as it was the last, so it is one of the best. It is moral and very pathetic. The following stanzas are extremely beautiful.

' Yet still he fills affection's eye,  
Obscurely wise and coarsely kind;  
Nor letter'd arrogance deny  
Thy praise to merit unrefin'd.

When fainting nature call'd for aid,  
And hovering death prepar'd the blow,  
His vigorous remedy display'd  
The power of art without the show.



In misery's darkest cavern known,  
 His useful care was ever nigh,  
 Where hopeless anguish pour'd his groan,  
 And lonely want retir'd to die.

No summons mock'd by chill delay,  
 No petty gain disdain'd by pride;  
 The modest wants of every day  
 The toil of every day supply'd.'

The epitaphs, as usual, consist chiefly of phrases tacked together from different classical authors. 'Postquam excessit ex Ephebis' (printed *et*) is so common, that it should have been left for authors of less learning. That on Dr. Goldsmith seems to us the best.

As this is the whole of our author's poetry, we presume that neither the quantity nor the quality will entitle him to a very elevated situation on Parnassus. When some historian shall add his life to the poets of Great Britain, we hope, for the sake of his future fame, that they will not be so rigidly exact, so minutely scrupulous, as he has been in weighing the merits of his poetical brethren. Dr. Johnson himself is not exempt from errors, similar to those which he has blamed in others. The concluding lines, on the Death of Dr. Levet, are exceptionable.

'Death broke at once the *vital chain*,  
 And forc'd his soul the *nearest way*.'

Since it is the soul which gives *life*, the chain that confines the soul is corporeal: the *vital chain* cannot be said, with propriety, to be broken by death. Dr. Johnson would not have forgiven an error of this kind in Gray.

*The Mine : A Dramatic Poem.* By John Sargent, Esq. 4to.  
 3s. sewed. Cadell.

OUR author has opened a Mine, as yet untouched; and the ore is of an extraordinary excellence and purity. We have seldom seen any with so little alloy; for it would come from the smelting furnace, after the most violent heat, very slightly diminished. To drop the metaphor, this new attempt to clothe the rugged science of mineralogy in a poetical dress, and to adorn it with suitable images, though hitherto accounted 'steril and unaccommodated to description,' is accomplished with success. The author combines a knowledge of science to a vivid imagination, and energetic language; and the pleasure we felt from the perusal of his work, was like what Robinson Crusoe's must have been,

when crawling into the cavern, where he expected noisome damp and poisonous reptiles, to find a spacious excavation, reflecting the light of his torch with unexampled brilliancy. The story is not new. It was first related by Mr. Everard, in Italian; and a translation of his letters on that subject were inserted in the tenth volume of the Annual Register. The same story was the foundation of a play, written by Mr. Henry Jones, which is now sometimes acted, with considerable additions by Dr. Hiffernan, under the title of the 'Heroine of the Cave.' Our author does not conceal this play, from a wish to keep it out of sight; for there is not the smallest resemblance between it and his poem, but probably because he was unacquainted with it. That part where the scene is laid in the mine, abounds with passages both pathetic and natural, without any reference to mineralogy, but of the most general kind. The dulness of the rest has prevented the tragedy from being frequently acted, or much applauded.

But, though the story be not new, the conduct of it is entirely so. The images are selected from natural history, with wonderful propriety: they are generally poetical, and well adapted to the different characters. Mr. Sargent has employed his machinery with great advantage; but the term requires an explanation. The superstition of miners, in these gloomy abodes, has embodied every hollow sound, every distant murmur, and given to airy 'nothings a local habitation and a name.' Milton mentions the 'swart fairy of the mine;' most miners have heard of the 'little old man, with a great head;' and, in Cornwall, the small folk (small folks) are supposed to be no unfrequent attendants on these subterraneous labourers. Our author calls them gnomes, with the Rosycrusian philosophers; yet they are benevolent spirits, and their operations always tend to the good of mankind. In this respect, he somewhat differs from the Rosycrusians, but is very consistent with the legends of mines; for, when the small folk are heard, they are supposed to warn the workmen of impending danger; and, if they do not desist, some accident is generally expected to follow.

Few are unacquainted with the story of count Alberti, as related by Mr. Everard, and that of the poem before us is little different. He is not supposed to know Juliana, who has followed him against his express command to this subterraneous banishment; and his distress is artfully heightened, by an attack of one of the miners on his benevolent sympathetic friend, for she appears no other, who, if she cannot relieve, seems to lament his distress. As Maurice, the name of the hero in this poem, appears to be her defender, by the

suggestion of the ravisher Conrad, he is ordered by the officer to work in the most dark unwholesome part of the mine. The gnomes who have watched over Juliana, and protected her, who have soothed her troubled mind to rest, and delighted her imagination with pleasing dreams; these friendly spirits have been also sent by their queen to the empress of Hungary, and

' In the rich splendor of her blazing ring,  
Beryl and flaming chrysolith have hid  
Their glittering essence, and with heavenly skill  
Have shot the beams of mercy o'er her soul.'

The event is obvious, and the conclusion consequently happy.

Of the conduct of the poem it is not easy to give an adequate specimen. The gnomes, at their first introduction, tell us that to them is given to

————— ' exert  
Immortal alchymy; the crisped founts  
To crystallize, and point the glistening spar.'

But we would preserve the following song entire. Its picturesque and uncommon beauties would be lost by the slightest mutilation.

' Sylphs, no more in haunted groves  
Boast your vegetable loves;  
Nor the bloom young zephyrs fling  
O'er the vermil cheek of Spring;  
Nor the dewy fragrance, born  
From the tresses of the morn,  
Wherefoe'er our footsteps turn,  
Rubies blush, and diamonds burn;  
Every grot and silver cave  
Streams of milk and amber lave;  
And our bow'rs such perfumes give,  
As mortals cannot taste, and live \*.  
From controuling seasons free,  
We labour our high alchymy,  
Nor borrow from the garish day  
One beam, to light us on our way;  
But beneath the Atlantic flood  
Wind our subterraneous road:  
Our torch the phosphorus, our car  
The jacinth, or the emerald spar,  
Wond'rous toils we here pursue,  
Never ending, always new;

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\* \* Some of the most noxious vapours in the mines are attended with a delightful smell, resembling the pea-blossom.'

Blending in our vast retreat,  
Moist and dry, and cold and heat;  
Till our skill prolific tries  
All nature's contrarieties.'

The language has, in many places, the rugged energy of Shakspeare; but even when most tender, it is nervous and expressive.—I would, says Leopold,

'Delve the thick-ribbed rocks with fervent toil,  
And hear the viewless winds incessant roar,  
Imprison'd like ourselves within the depths  
Of these perplexed labyrinths—could I abridge  
Thy sorrow, and ransom our remaining age.'

Again; the following lines have seldom been equalled for strength and expression,

'Ye mazy caverns, scoop'd with endless toil  
Beneath the solid rocks, each under each  
Projecting, deeper than the wedging root  
Of Jove's own oak e'er pierc'd! what do I not  
Forego, to dwell within thy dark abode?'

We cannot resist transcribing the subsequent passage; for the images are strongly expressive of gloomy and majestic grandeur.

'See where our vallies wind, our Alps arise,  
What meteors thwart, what suns emblaze the skies!  
Here foaming cataracts the wild champaign shake,  
There in diffusive radiance sleeps the lake;  
Huge caves expand, thro' whole wide-yawning arch  
Embattled hosts of mightiest kings can march;  
The shadowy void deep-brooding darkness fills,  
And smooths her plumage in the dripping rills;  
In frowning state self-center'd columns glare,  
Abortive echoes flutter in the air;  
Their dusky foliage rocks fantastic wreath,  
And quake, like forests, to the blasts beneath.'

There perhaps were seldom more happy expressions than 'frowning state' and 'abortive echos.' The last line gives the most tremendous idea of *that* blast which can shake these solid masses 'like a forest.'

Though we have extracted much, yet many striking passages, scarcely inferior, remain; and we have no room for the softer, the more common beauties—the quotidianæ formæ which we frequently meet with. It is a part of our duty also to discover faults: perhaps some of the lines are still too rugged, even for the subject, and some accents are improperly placed; but the eye that can see these defects must be insensible to the greatest merits of this new species of poetry. Our author  
cannot

cannot be called a plagiarist, for his imitations are general and allowable; but, independent of his general style, the admirers of Shakspeare will, in the song lately quoted, recollect the *Tempest*, and *Midsummer Night's Dream*; and we sometimes find him treading in the steps of Milton, with a grace and dignity little inferior to his predecessor. What frigid critic shall again assert, that the mineral kingdom is incapable of ornament?

The notes contain an elucidation of the scientific parts. In one of the odes, the Linnæan system of fossils is described, (such is the power of 'heaven-born poesy!') in highly pleasing and poetical lines. Indeed our author seems to have studied minerals in this system, and to have since become acquainted with Bergman and Kirwan. His outline is entirely Linnæan. He frequently quotes the poem *Περὶ Διδων*, falsely ascribed to Orpheus; and his translations from it are so smooth and elegant, that we cannot suspect the ruggedness of some part of this poem to have proceeded from any thing but design. On the whole, we have received pleasure from this work, and think 'the Mine' a valuable addition to the stock of English poetry.

*A Treatise on Time.* By Wm. Watson, Jun. M. D. F. R. S.  
8vo. 2s. 6d. Johnson.

THIS is a pretty accurate examination of an intricate subject, of a subject so fleeting, that the imagination can scarcely grasp it, which escapes before it can be subjected to the examination of the reason. Perhaps much is not to be added to the sum of science, by these abstracted disquisitions on what, if it exist, is chiefly relative to ourselves. It is with time as with space, we cannot easily conceive either distinct from the bodies which mark, or which fill them. Their existence, in general, seems at first sight, among those possibilities which are beyond the reach of the mind's eye; yet Dr. Watson appears to consider time, in this respect, too limitedly. We allow, that to us it is generally measured by our perceptions, and imperfectly by our ideas; but only by our ideas so far as they are the vestiges of the former, and consequently with all the languor and inaccuracy of a recollected image. But, independent of this mode of existence, time must also be connected with every regular and constant motion. It must depend, for instance, on the motion of the heavenly bodies, though we suppose no observer in the universe. This will be obvious on a very slight reflection. Each body, in motion, must move with some velocity, and successively occupy dif-

different spaces ; consequently some time must be employed in this change, and the time being greater or less, in respect to the space passed over, will determine the rate of velocity. But, whatever may be the result, the progress is a proof of the existence of time, independent of an observer. It is perhaps time in the abstract ; of little consequence to the world, though it necessarily exist. Again : we suppose, for instance, that so far as respects its inhabitants, the age of the world is very limited ; but a slight examination into the constitution of the earth shows, that changes are constantly produced. In any given period however these are almost imperceptible, while the whole is sometimes so great, that it has probably been in a progressive state, far beyond the date of our first parents ; for it is by no means inconsistent with sacred history, to suppose the real age of this planet very much greater than that of its first inhabitants. In this progress then, previous to the existence of observers, time is as distinctly marked as at any future period : though changes may have been produced more quickly or more slowly, it will not affect our original position, viz. the existence of time, not only independent of present observers, but of any future ones.

It is not easy to give a particular account of this little work, Dr. Watson considers first an instant, and then a 'flux of instants,' under the title of *Perceptible Time* ; but perceptible time must be again combined to produce succession ; and this part of the treatise seems to be executed with particular care. So far time relates to our own minds ; but the subject is not complete, without considering it more generally, as it is marked by the celestial motions. This constitutes *universal time*, and a branch of it is *imperceptible time*. If, for instance, any of the heavenly bodies moves one mile in a second, there must be a certain space of time in which it moves a foot ; and, though this can be calculated, it can never be perceived.

Zeno's argument against motion is generally known ; but it errs in its first principle. 'An arrow which tends towards a certain place, is in every instant in a space equal to itself.' This first sentence involves the conclusion ; for, if it be *ever* in a given space, it is at rest. In fact, the very essence of its motion consists in its being never in such a state, since it does not arrive at any given spot, before it begins to move from it, Dr. Watson has, we think, treated this celebrated sophism with too much attention.

We cannot easily give a specimen of the author's manner, which is clear and correct, while the different subjects are necessarily so intimately connected. We shall make no apology  
for

for laying before the reader the following step, in experimental metaphysics, as we may have frequent occasion to refer to it. The experiments were made by Mr. Herschel, to ascertain the *velocity* of our audible sensations.

"The string being removed from the barrel of the striking part of a clock, I turned it with the key in the same manner as we do to wind it up, and beginning first slowly, at the rate perhaps of once round in a second, I attended to the distinctness of the clicking noise (if I may use that expression.) This being continued for about twenty seconds, I gradually encreased the motion till I had two turns in a second, when I again continued that velocity for a considerable time. After this I increased once more till three turns were made in a second, and continued that motion equably; and so on a fourth or a fifth time. It is necessary to have in view the motion of the hand of some clock, which points out seconds, as the rattling of the ratchet will not permit the observer, otherwise, to know how quick the handle is turning; and a long continuance of the motion is necessary, that the ear may, as it were, exert its faculty of perceiving so quickly, by a gradual increase of attention. The ratchet of the clock in question has only forty teeth; and I find that the motion of the hand cannot well be accelerated to more than four times round in a second, without producing a confusion in the rattle of the click, which can no longer be distinguished. This gives one hundred and sixty successive sounds in a second of time,

"I have attempted another experiment on visible sensations. By means of the same handle and work of the clock, I caused a wheel in it to turn, till it acquired the velocity of once in a second, which was ascertained by means of a mark made by a pen and ink on the axle. I observed it while revolving at the rate of twenty times round in thirteen seconds, and could still distinguish the teeth and spaces from each other; that is, I could see that the teeth were not (according to your expression) lengthened out so as to fill up the whole periphery (which was the case of another wheel, which turned ten times as fast.) In thirteen seconds, therefore,  $20 \times 80 = 1,600$  teeth, or 3,200 teeth and spaces were still visible in succession, that is, 246 in a second. The teeth of the wheel were not so far visible as to shew their shape distinctly, much less could they have been counted: I could, however, very plainly distinguish the circumference to be divided into teeth and spaces; and suppose the same division might still have been seen, had the motion been a little faster, as far, perhaps, as two turns in a second, equal to 320 sensations. While the wheel was performing its gyration, I applied a pair of compasses near its periphery, and shutting them gradually, I supposed this opening of the points nearly equal to the distance of the centers of the teeth, and found, on stopping the machine, that the measure was pretty  
just.

just. To obviate an objection which might be made, I repeated the experiment by hiding the wheel with a piece of paper held over it, which paper had only a very narrow slit cut into it, so as just to permit a tooth and a space to appear at once, when the experiment answered as before \*."

*Essay II. On the Nature and Principles of Public Credit.* 8vo.  
2s. White.

**I**N our fifty-seventh Volume, page 107, we gave some account of the First Essay; and, in the conclusion of the article, extracted the author's promise of a Second, in his own words. A little ambiguity in the language induced us to employ them, for we could not easily ascertain his precise meaning; but it is sufficiently elucidated in the present Essay.

The subject of this continuation is the sinking fund, or a fund raised from the surplus of the revenue, for the purpose of accumulating a sum to be employed in the diminution of the national debt. This indeed ought to be its object; if it has been otherwise employed, we suppose sufficient reasons might be assigned for its destination; it will indeed be obvious, that to take sums from this fund, which would otherwise have contributed to swell the public debt, can scarcely be styled a misapplication of them, except in very particular circumstances. It frequently must be favourable; as, for instance, when by interested combinations, the premium demanded for a loan exceeds its value, appreciated by the price of stock, or when the latter is sunk by artful manœuvres to suit the plan of the lender. What our author calls the 'progressional power of the sinking fund,' is the power which any given sum has to redeem a greater or less capital of the public debt, and this must necessarily be in the inverse ratio of the public prosperity. When interest, for instance, is high, stocks are low; consequently public calamities will be favourable to this power, as by their means a greater quantity of stock may be bought with a given sum. This is one of the instances

\* The chevalier D'Arcy in some experiments, made with a view to determine the duration of visible sensations, found that the sensation of a lighted coal lasted eight-thirds, after the lighted coal itself had ceased to make any impression on the eye. Hence it follows (one-third being the sixtieth part of a second) that we cannot entertain so many as eight such sensations, one after another, in a second of time. In Mr Herschel's experiment, where the objects were less luminous, the number was found to be far greater. But it is highly probable, that the duration of sensations depends in a great measure on the splendour of the objects concerned. The chevalier D'Arcy himself found white objects to be not quite so durable as the lighted coal. He appears, however, not to have made any decisive experiments with this particular view.—*Memoires de l'Académie des Sciences*, année 1765, p. 439.



hinted at in our former article, where arithmetical calculations must be necessarily modified by views of a very different nature; for a prosperous state of the sinking fund will act as a counterpoise to national calamities, and prevent that influence on the price of stock, which they would otherwise produce: and if ever the sinking fund be appropriated in this manner, as is supposed to be the present intention of administration, it will be absolutely necessary to conceal the execution of the design with the most anxious precautions, and to employ the money by slow degrees, and at distant intervals. But to return.

Our author, though he neglects this necessary counterpoise in a general view, yet, when applied to particular circumstances, gives it a proper weight. To render the sinking fund capable of producing its full effect, he thinks the progression power should be secured. This is, he thinks, best done, 'by converting the debt into redeemable stock, the nominal capital whereof shall not exceed the actual value of the annuities, computed according to the market rate of interest for the time being.' But as, in this case, the extra-interest, granted by this conversion, is, in obvious ways, liable to an immediate reduction, unless its security be provided for, it is equally necessary, that the 'honest annuitant,' who only can be injured by this reduction, should be placed beyond the reach of contrivances, which would so much deteriorate his property. The counter securities are the subject of this pamphlet; and the two following sections contain, 1st.

'An investigation, ascertaining the necessary principles of an annuity stock, that shall naturally produce an equal security to the progression power of the sinking fund, and to the annuity appertaining to the creditor.' 2dly, An enumeration 'of the superior advantages attendant on an annuity stock of the foregoing principles, in preference to any other kind of annuities; and the mutual benefit flowing therefrom, as well to the creditors as to the public; whereby the public credit naturally becomes restored to its pristine state.'

In the first Section of the Postscript, our author endeavours not only to show that Mr. Sinclair's opinion of the sound state of our resources, and the distance of a national bankruptcy, is well-founded; but that, in reality, this fatal event is 'equally producible or preventible' at pleasure. We cannot enter on this subject, as it would exceed our limits; but, after a careful examination, we think the plan equally clear, consistent, and practicable. We would strongly recommend it to the powers that be.'

In the second Section Mr. Gale considers some of the positions in Dr. Price's remarks on a plan, to raise money by public

public loans, and to redeem public debts. The principal of these positions are, 'that reductions of interest are some of the most dangerous and temporary expedients: that they only postpone calamities, by accumulating them, and rendering them less possible to be avoided.' This subject our author expatiates on at some length; and, after a few observations on other parts, examines the doctor's plan for diminishing the national debt. The nature of these details prevents us from analysing, and their length from transcribing them. We shall only add, that Mr. Gale's arguments are supported by great strength of reasoning, and; what seem to us, accurate calculations.

This Second Essay is more clear, and more applicable to practice, than the former, while at the same time it exhibits equal accuracy of distinction, and is supported by reasoning equally solid. The language is still dry and unornamented; to many it may seem obscure; but these are defects inseparable from the subject, in which ornament would be misapplied; and which is with difficulty comprehended or explained.

*Apology for the Life of George Anne Bellamy. 3 Vols. 12mo.*  
15s. Bell.

**T**HIS title is modest; but it leads one to expect apologies for errors, instead of a free, unconstrained relation of them. Perhaps Mrs. Bellamy has preserved it, in imitation of the title of similar performances, without perceiving its tendency to mislead. Though we must suspect, that a natural partiality for her own actions, a little spice of self-love will gild her faults, and diminish her errors, yet the tale, in many respects, appears to be related with fidelity and candour. Her own mind, unaccustomed to restraint, was eager and impetuous in forming and executing its resolutions: Lively, gay, and inconsiderate, with a spirit which years could not humble, or misfortunes depress, she has been the victim of misdirected talents, and of qualifications which, in better circumstances, might have rendered her a bright ornament of society. In the sun-shine of prosperity she was followed; courted, and admired; her faults assumed the lustre of their kindred virtues, and her errors were consequently sanctioned by popular applause; they were rooted by the approbation of those whose 'praise was fame.' At this time, she could not be expected to think of age,—to reflect on its attendants, obscurity, neglect, and perhaps poverty; so that many of her faults may be styled indiscretions; and these were sometimes produced by the mis-

misconduct of others rather than of herself: even her indiscretions have, in some instances, arisen from the best motives, the most warm and active benevolence.

We would not, however, wish to plead in favour of immorality, though we should distinguish between voluntary and accidental guilt. There are not many works whose tendency is more salutary. These volumes may remind the gay fluttering butterflies of the present day, that the period of reflection and regret will probably arrive, when the remembrance of these fading pleasures will be attended with remorse rather than delight: they may suggest to the unthinking fair-one, who envies the gilded luxuries of her who seems to bask in the sunshine of fortune, that it is an 'unsubstantial pageant,' which will dissolve, and leave a permanent distress: that, in the midst of splendor, the mind fears to look at the conduct which its unregulated passions have dictated, and shuns reflection as its bitterest enemy. Mrs. Bellamy has endeavoured to oppose the influence of example, by moral reflections; but these are often trite or misapplied, and their return at the end of every letter, rather tends to disgust than instruct. The consequences of vice are the best incentives to virtue.

The story is in general told with spirit: it is frequently affecting and amusing; but the anecdotes lose much of their zest, because unaccompanied with that lively manner which once distinguished Mrs. Bellamy. The wretched we commonly forsake, and fly to 'eyes unfulfilled with a tear:' perhaps, on this account, we found the latter volumes less interesting than the former; but whatever was the cause, in her decline, the story hangs with unusual heaviness. The anecdotes, occasionally introduced, reflect the highest honour on the humanity of some of the heroes of the stage. If Mr. Garrick does not possess an honourable and resplendent niche in this group of statues, somewhat must be allowed to the failings of human nature, and somewhat to disadvantageous impression, which his frequent disputes with our author must have necessarily left.

On the whole, these volumes are very entertaining, and we think instructive. To the heart guarded by moral instruction, they can certainly do no injury; and we think the consequences are too obvious to be overlooked by the most careless, the most dissipated reader. The confession, so far as it may be supposed candid, adds a credit to the author; but independent of self-love, the debts of gratitude seem to have been repaid, by extenuating the errors of others.

The

The following anecdote of a certain distinguished character, is curious and entertaining.

'I cannot here help taking notice of an instance, among many, of this worthy man's fondness for his son, who justly makes so conspicuous a figure in the political annals of the present times. The wall at the bottom of the lawn before Holland-house being to be taken down, and iron pallisades put up in its room, that the passengers on the road might have a better view of that fine antique building, it was necessary to make use of gunpowder to precipitate the work. Mr. Fox had promised master Charles that he should be present when the explosion took place. But finding the workmen had completed the fall of the wall without giving him notice, he ordered it to be rebuilt. And when it was thoroughly cemented, had it blown up again, in order to keep his word with his son. He at the same time recommended it to those about him, never, upon any account, to be guilty of a breach of promise to children, as by doing so they instilled into them an indifference in regard to the observance of their own promises, when they arrived at years of maturity.'

The following trait of Mrs. Bellamy's sensibility does credit to her heart.

Mr. Colman introduced a young lady, by name Morris, in his play of *The English Merchant*, in which she met with great approbation. She afterwards appeared in *Juliet*. As her youth and attractions were what Juliet should be, it would have been absurd to a degree, had I objected to her playing it; notwithstanding, at that period, it was not common to take the capital performers characters from them, except for a person of acknowledged merit.

'This fair flower, like a lily, reared a-while her head, displayed her beauties to the sun, and diffused around the sweetest odours. But transient as the lily's was her fate.—Like her lovely emblem surcharged with rain, she soon dropped, and charmed no more. So eager was the grisley monster death to seize such perfection, and so hasty were his strides, that she was unable to appear at her own benefit in the character of Juliet. I was therefore solicited by her relations to perform the part, which I did with the greatest readiness; sincerely regretting, at the same time, the untimely decay of such promising merit; which probably would have adorned the stage with another *Fairen*.'

We would willingly have extracted some passages relating to Mr. Quin and Mr. Woodward; but we would neither anticipate the reader's curiosity, or run the slightest risk of injuring the unfortunate author.

*History of the Public Revenue. (Concluded, from p. 210.)*

**I**N the Second Part of this work, Mr. Sinclair proceeds to treat of the various modes of providing for the extraordinary expences of the nation.

‘The charges incurred by a nation in times of peace, seldom exceed its ordinary income, or what it may be made to produce. It requires no great revenue to maintain the magistrates entrusted with the general government of the country; to support such as are employed in expounding the laws, and in distributing justice; and to defray the expences of such public works as are essentially necessary for the benefit of the community. Indeed, if nations were always at peace, supplying a revenue for public purposes, could never prove burdensome to society.

‘But the necessity there is, from the turbulent disposition of the human species, and the ambition of those individuals who govern the affairs of states, to be perpetually providing for the expences of war, is uniformly attended with the heaviest charges. Maxims of frugality, however proper and desirable at other times, are found incompatible with a state of hostility. When the fate of a nation is at stake, or even when any of its important interests are endangered, exertions must be made, without regarding the expences they may occasion. The troops and armaments of the foe must be opposed, whatever cost such opposition may require; and every citizen must sacrifice a part of his fortune, either to increase the property and maintain the interests of the community to which he belongs, or to preserve the wealth which it has already acquired from the plunder of its enemies.’

By the manner in which our author has expressed himself in the conclusion of the above passage, the sense, we have reason to think, is very different from what he intended to convey. If we be right in the meaning which we suppose him to have had in view, the following arrangement of the words would have precluded all imprecision: ‘or to preserve, from the plunder of its enemies, the wealth which it has already acquired.’

Our author considers, under four distinct heads, the different methods which have been proposed for raising those extraordinary supplies. The first is, to accumulate a treasure in time of peace. The second, to levy the necessary supplies within the year, by means of extraordinary additional taxes. The third, to exact compulsive loans from the wealthiest individuals in the community. The fourth, to borrow money from such as are willing to advance it upon the security of public faith. These several modes he afterwards examines in their order.

The first of the abovementioned methods of supply has been practised during the infancy of many states, and amongst these, in that of England, under the princes subsequent to the Conquest. But, our author observes, it is attended with one essential disadvantage.

‘ If the precious metals at all contribute to the happiness of political society (which cannot be doubted, at least by those who consider with how much greater facility commerce is carried on in consequence of so useful a medium), every plan that tends to diminish their abundance, must be prejudicial. A system of that nature may be less hurtful, before industry and commerce flourish; and at such a period may perhaps be necessary, from the difficulty with which any considerable sum of money is collected in critical emergencies. But, in general, it would be better to employ the surplus of the national revenue in works of public advantage, or even in the construction of useless pyramids, as was done by the sovereigns of Egypt, than in accumulating a hoard to lie dormant, without interest and without circulation.

‘ A well-known and eminent author has notwithstanding vehemently contended for continuing the practice of the ancients; and in particular grounds himself upon this idea, “ That the opening of such a treasure necessarily produces an uncommon affluence of gold and silver, serves as a temporary encouragement to industry, and atones, in some degree, for the inevitable calamities of war.” Unfortunately for this author’s hypothesis, the same circumstance, namely the abundance of gold and silver, which alleviates the calamities of war, augments also the blessings of peace; and those blessings are necessarily diminished where treasures are accumulated: indeed, a public hoard can hardly be collected, without reducing a nation, in point of commerce and circulation, to much the same situation in times of tranquillity, as in the midst of war. Besides, it is proper to remark, that the Romans always endeavoured, in the first place, to procure money by loans, and never applied to their treasure, but when their credit was exhausted.’

Mr. Sinclair confirms his opinion with regard to the bad effects of accumulating treasures, by observing that this mode of recourse is liable to other insurmountable objections; such as the danger which may thence result of usurpation in monarchical governments; of despotism in free states; and, under every form of government, of being improvidentially expended. He remarks that in England, the usurpations of the three monarchs who reigned after William the Conqueror, were greatly owing to their having secured the treasures of their predecessors. That if no public treasure had existed in the Roman common-wealth, Cæsar could hardly have succeeded in his attempt upon the liberties of his country. And that

that the immense treasures which the republic of Athens had been accumulating for the space of fifty years, was dissipated in rash and imprudent enterprizes, to the ruin of the state.

Respecting the method of raising the supplies within the year, our author observes that this was the principle upon which aids were originally granted by parliament to the kings of England: and, at the Revolution, it was imagined that a general excise, in addition to the usual revenue, would have furnished money sufficient to defray the expences of the war. But he justly remarks, that various circumstances unfortunately contributed to render such a plan at that time impracticable.

‘The instant of a revolution is an improper period for increasing, in any great degree, the burdens of a nation. Many would have rejoiced at such an opportunity of spreading dissatisfaction to the new government. Taxes were at that time peculiarly unpopular in England; insomuch that it was thought necessary, in order to ingratiate the new sovereign with his people, to diminish instead of increasing the revenue, and to repeal the productive duty of hearth-money, by one of the first acts to which William III. gave the royal assent after his accession.’

This mode of raising supplies has nevertheless been recommended by several writers, since the era of the Revolution; viz. by sir Matthew Decker, Postlethwayt, Mr. Pulteney, and Mr. Arthur Young; who have represented, in flattering colours the advantages, of which, in their opinion, it would be productive. To carry such a plan into effect, our author observes that two things are requisite; first, power and resources in a state; and secondly, inclination in the public. We join with Mr. Sinclair in thinking, that the ability of a nation to make a great addition to its revenue, amidst all the horrors and calamities of war, especially in modern times, when hostilities are protracted to such a length, and carried on in so extensive a manner, is at best problematical. For, whether the plan proposed by Mr. Young, of levying the tax upon income, or that of Mr. Pulteney, of laying it upon capital, should be adopted, in either case the expedient would be accompanied with great difficulty. According to the former, it is supposed, that thirty-seven millions of the national income arises from property liable, in time of war, to great hazard, and much diminution in point of value, and consequently unable to bear any heavy additional burden. On the other hand, by Mr. Pulteney's plan, though sufficient property existed in Great Britain, yet the difficulty of collecting it from the distant parts of the kingdom, so as to answer

the exigences of government, must be extremely great. On this subject our author makes the following just observations.

The plan of raising its supplies within the year, however, is a circumstance which every nation ought to have in view, as it may possibly prove absolutely necessary for its preservation and existence; and perhaps it might be rendered less oppressive, and more practicable, if, instead of specie, a part of the new additional supplies were exacted in kind; and if the furnishing of a certain number of recruits; the providing of a certain number of seamen, or a certain quantity of naval stores, &c. &c. were considered as a sufficient equivalent for the new taxes, at a certain reasonable conversion. For there may be property in a country amply sufficient to carry such a plan into effect, and yet, where money is demanded, it may be rendered impracticable, from the want of a sufficient quantity of circulating specie. Such a plan might perhaps be attempted, if the real strength and resources of the kingdom were fully known; and if it were ascertained, what each district could afford for the public service, on any important emergency, not only in money, but in other articles useful to the state.

The third mode which has been mentioned of levying supplies, namely, that by compulsive loans, is of very ancient date in this country. From being originally a tax on foreign merchants, it was afterwards extended to the natives of the kingdom; from whom it was often exacted in a manner even inconsistent with common decency; until at last compulsive loans were formally abolished by the petition of right. The author's observations respecting this arbitrary method of taxation deserve to be laid before our readers.

But, says he, it is a curious subject of political speculation, whether such a plan might not be improved, so as to answer many beneficial public purposes; and whether such a system ought not to be kept in view, if another war should unfortunately soon break out. If every wealthy person in the kingdom were obliged, when called upon by the legislature, to furnish a certain sum of money, at a reasonable interest, upon the faith and security of parliament, loans would be raised upon moderate terms, and probably without much murmur or oppression. By such means, the enormous profits which are exacted by usurious money-lenders, who combine together, and take every unfair advantage of the public necessities, would be prevented; nor would the nation, to gratify their rapacity, be loaded with burdens almost unsupportable.

It cannot be denied, that the necessities of the state might justify the legislature in the recourse to such a mode of exaction, particularly if the money-lenders demanded exorbitant interest; but to prevent the expedient from becoming oppressive,



pressive, care would be required to adapt it as much as possible to the convenience of individuals.

The last method of raising supplies is by voluntary loans, which are obtained on various conditions ; such as on valuable pledges ; on personal security ; by mortgaging the public domains ; by mortgaging taxes ; by temporary annuities ; by annuities on lives ; by contingent annuities ; and by perpetual annuities ; to which may be added, exchequer bills and debentures of every kind, the sale of offices, and the alienation of the public domains.

Our author, after enumerating the various methods of providing for the extraordinary expences of a nation, takes a general view of the circumstances which gave birth to the heavy load of public debts, and of the advantages and disadvantages which they have produced. He accounts, in an obvious and satisfactory manner, for the difference of the national burdens arising from military operations, in ancient and modern times.

‘ Formerly, says he, one or other of the parties at war boldly entered into the territories of his opponent ; and marching directly to the capital, or to any spot where the enemy had assembled, the fate of a wealthy kingdom, or powerful republic, was often decided by a single engagement. But in modern times, the whole fury of the war is spent in besieging towns on the frontier, or in doubtful naval operations, or in the attack and defence of some remote colony, or distant appendage ; the consequence of which is, that the war is protracted to a great length, and becomes progressively more expensive. Thus neither of the parties are able to procure any great superiority, or decided advantage ; and hostilities are carried on, until the resources of one, or both of them, are exhausted ; and it is found impossible to raise money, either by augmenting the ordinary revenue, or by borrowing on the public faith.

‘ In ancient times, wars were not only shorter in their duration, but means were also taken, and principles were adopted, which rendered great pecuniary supplies less necessary than at present. Formerly, the whole was a scene of plunder and devastation. The persons and the property of the enemy were at the entire disposal of the conqueror ; and the general estimated the profits of the campaign, not only by the quantity of money, and other personal effects he had seized, but also by the number of his prisoners, who were sold for slaves, and were accounted a very valuable commodity. The greater part of the plunder taken in the campaign, was accounted for to the public ; and many a Roman general, after defraying the charges of the war from the booty he had acquired, was also able to make considerable additions to the public treasury, amidst the triumphal shouts of his countrymen.

'The arms now made use of, are also much more expensive than those of antiquity. The shield, the spear, the lance, the javelin, and the bow and arrow of the ancients, cannot be compared, in regard to price, with the modern musquet; particularly when the reiterated expence of powder and ball is taken into consideration. And as to military engines, there can be no comparison in point of cost, between a modern train of artillery, and a set of battering-rams and catapultæ.

'But the principal source of national expences in these times, when compared to those of antiquity, arises from naval charges. It is at sea where all the modern nations have wasted their strength. It is on that element that those debts have in a great measure been contracted, under the pressure of which they now groan. Had the rage of equipping numerous fleets, and building ships of great magnitude and dimensions, never existed, hardly any state in Europe would have been at this time in debt. To that fatal ambition, their present distressed and mortgaged situation ought chiefly to be attributed.'

Various are the opinions which have been entertained by different political writers, with regard to the effects of the funding system. The celebrated Montesquieu declared, that he knew of no advantages of which public debts were productive; but Mr. Sinclair observes, that this excellent writer seems to have formed too hasty a conclusion. 'It is hardly possible, says he, for any person who attentively considers the subject, to deny the beneficial consequences resulting from public credit, in the prosecution of a just and necessary war. And in fact, he adds, the great success which has uniformly attended the arms of Great Britain, when its affairs have been wisely and prudently conducted, has been entirely owing to the ease with which any sum, however great, could be procured for the public service. The latter of these observations every reader must acknowledge to be just; and we therefore have some reason to doubt whether there really exists any difference of opinion between our author and Montesquieu on this head. We are inclined to think that the baron, in the above mentioned passage, had in his eye only the *political* consequences of the funding system, and not its immediate influence on the conduct and success of the military affairs of a nation.

It is certain that the funding system, amidst its numerous inconveniencies, is productive likewise of public advantage in several particulars; of which we meet with the following account in the work before us.

'If supplies were raised within the year, and the expences of war were considerable, every individual would be obliged, in consequence of the additional weight of his contributions, greatly to curtail his expences; and the employment of the  
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poor, and the consumption of the rich, would be considerably diminished. Whereas, when taxes are nearly equal, in times of peace and war (which can only be the case where the system of funding is adopted), the value of every species of property, the mass of national industry, and the circulation of national wealth, are maintained on as regular, steady, and uniform a footing, as the uncertainty and instability of human affairs will admit. Indeed, before public credit is carried to too great a height, a war maintained by national loans and taxes, may be accounted even an advantage to the state. It is of service to the poor, because the price of their labour increases with the greater demand for labourers; it is of use to the rich, for the greater occasion there is for money, the greater is the profit of those who have money to lay out: and foreign wars, though unavoidably attended with many private calamities; yet generally put an end to public discord, and free the country of a number of turbulent and vicious characters, who are a pest to society.

‘Among the advantages of the funding system, there is none which its friends have so highly extolled, and its enemies have so loudly reprobated, as its tendency to attract money from foreign countries, and the consequence with which that circumstance is attended. It may, perhaps, be of service to a state at war, to be able to draw some resources from other nations; and the want of such aid (as Pinto observes) might have checked and enfeebled all our military operations. Perhaps, also, the Bank of England, and the East India company, the establishment of which has added so much to the wealth and commerce of this country, could not have been erected, or carried on with such effect, from the low state of the trade and resources of England at that time, if it had not been for the assistance they originally received from foreigners: and perhaps, so great is the amount of our public debts at present, that the quantity far exceeds our consumption or demand at home; and our funds could hardly be kept up at any tolerable price, without foreign purchasers. At the same time, whether foreign property in our funds ought to be accounted of public detriment or advantage, is perhaps the most difficult question of any connected with the funding system.

‘I am apprised of what a very intelligent author has said, “That the trading subjects of this kingdom, from the farmer to the merchant, make upon an average upwards of ten per cent. per annum, of the money borrowed from foreigners, by our government, at little more than four; and thence, that a profit arises of nearly six per cent. to enable the people to bear the burden of an increase of taxes, and to give them a fresh contributive faculty of subscribing to new loans.” But it must be acknowledged, that if the money borrowed is immediately wasted in foreign expeditions, and never comes into the circulation of the country, the nation that borrows, pays interest to foreigners for a sum of money, without reaping from it any

solid advantage. The only benefit it can possibly produce is, that it renders it unnecessary to raise the money at home, by which the commerce and circulation of the country would probably be injured.

‘At the same time it is proper to observe, that when foreigners are admitted into the public funds of a country, they become naturally interested in promoting its happiness and prosperity. “Where their treasure is, there will their hearts be also.” And not only many wealthy individuals who are born in other countries, are gradually led to consider the state in which their property is settled, as their home, and thence are induced to come and reside in it; but if any great revolution, or a long series of destructive hostilities were to take place on the continent (from which we might be happily exempted in consequence of our insular situation), the greater part of our foreign creditors might find it equally necessary and desirable, to shelter themselves in England from the storm, and this country would receive a valuable addition to its population and wealth.’

Mr. Sinclair farther observes, that the public debts of a nation not only attract riches from abroad, with a sort of magnetic influence, but also retain, at home money, which would otherwise be exported; and which, if sent to other countries, might be attended with pernicious consequences to the state whose wealth is carried out of it. He illustrates this doctrine by the following example: that if France maintained its wars by borrowing money, and England raised all its supplies within the year, the necessary consequence would be, that all the loose and unemployed money of England, instead of remaining here, exposed to the chance of being taken up by a government, which gave no interest in return for the use of it, would naturally be transmitted to France, where it could be placed out to advantage. Admitting our author's supposition in the terms which have been stated, the inference may perhaps be well founded; but certainly such conduct could not be more disgraceful to British patriotism than the supposed arbitrary measures of government would be both to policy and justice. Did such oppression really exist in this country, as Mr. Sinclair has supposed for the sake of argument, the incident would be less surprising, that rich individuals should advance money to a foreign crown, than that they did not emigrate with it, and abandon a nation where the enjoyment of their property was so precarious. Other advantages attending the funding system, and specified by our author, are, that it brings money into circulation, attaches people to government, and encourages commerce and industry.

Mr. Sinclair next treats of the inconveniences of the funding system; shewing the disadvantages attending this mode of pro-

procuring money in cases of emergency; the pernicious consequences resulting from public debts whilst they remain unpaid; and how far they have a destructive tendency to increase and accumulate. The first consideration is, that the possession of unbounded credit is too apt to make a nation inclined to engage in rash and dangerous enterprizes. But the most essential objection is the accumulation of taxes, which, by increasing the price of the necessaries of life, renders it more difficult for the manufacturers of a mortgaged state, to carry on a successful competition with the subjects of other powers. Without giving any detail of the various objections to the funding system, which have been made by different writers, and are recited by the present author, we shall lay before our readers the plan which he proposes for establishing the funding system on the most beneficial principles for a nation.

‘ The first principle that the public ought to establish, is never to become bound to pay an iota more than the specific principal sum which it originally borrowed. Adding an artificial to a real capital, or pledging the public to pay a hundred pounds, when perhaps only sixty were received, is the most pernicious of all financial operations; and any minister that proposed such a plan in parliament, ought to be made liable to impeachment. It will probably be alleged, that it may be found impossible to borrow money, without giving the creditor that usurious advantage. That objection, however, ought not to be regarded. For when the money-lender knows that every other plan is contrary to an established law, which cannot be safely infringed, his ideas will be regulated accordingly, and the difference will be made up by premiums, or, in the language of the Alley, by an additional *bonus* or *douceur*, on principles less pernicious to the public. Indeed, if money cannot be borrowed in such a manner, it is a sign, either that the minister is deservedly unpopular, or that the war is unnecessary, and consequently ought not to be persevered in.

‘ This rule, if invariably adhered to, will for ever prevent the accumulation of a great artificial capital, which terrifies the imaginations of mankind, depresses the spirit of the people, diminishes their credit, and consequently impairs their strength.

‘ It ought also to be an unalterable law of the land, that after the creditor has received the interest originally agreed upon, for the space of five, or at the utmost seven years, it shall be in the power of the public to pay him off, if money can be borrowed for that purpose at a lower interest. This principle, if rigorously attended to, will gradually occasion a great diminution in the interest of our debts. England, at this time, pays only three per cent. for money that was originally borrowed at eight; and where artificial capitals do not obstruct such a measure, a nation can always borrow, in time of peace,

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at a cheaper rate, than in time of war, and thus the weight of its debts may be perpetually diminished.

A state determined to carry on its wars, by the funding system, ought never to borrow money upon any other principle, than that of perpetual annuities. All long and short annuities, and annuities for lives, whether tontines or otherwise, ought to be avoided. They breed confusion in the public accounts; they occasion a great additional expence for management; and the money that is borrowed, is procured upon terms infinitely more disadvantageous to the public. Whether, in time of peace, some money might not be raised, in a favourable manner, upon life annuities, is questionable; but, there can be no doubt that, in time of war, it is impossible for the public to make any tolerable bargain with money-lenders, founded on any uncertain contingency.

Besides, whatever may be said in regard to calculations in the Alley, that an annuity for a hundred years, is equal to a perpetuity; yet, as Dr. Smith well observes, those who buy into the public stocks, in order to make family settlements, or to provide for remote futurity (and they are the principal buyers and holders of stock), and corporations of every kind, are not fond of buying into a fund, the value of which is perpetually diminishing. And though the intrinsic worth of an annuity for a long term of years, is nearly the same with that of a perpetual annuity, yet it is not so valuable in the market, is never so much in request, and does not find the same number of purchasers.

Indeed, if a nation is determined to persevere in the funding system, the wisest and most politic step it can possibly take, is to adopt that mode of procuring money, which is the most likely to be the cheapest and most advantageous in the course of ages. It may flatter itself, that when it borrows upon short or long annuities, it will reap considerable advantages, when such annuities are extinguished. But it ought at the same time to remember, that before the annuities can cease, more money, in all probability, must be raised; and if the same unprofitable system is adhered to, the nation will always be borrowing money upon disadvantageous terms.

The establishment of an unalienable sinking fund, for the redemption of public debts, is another principle, which, in a state, where it is proposed to persevere in the funding system, cannot possibly be dispensed with; and such a fund ought to arise, not from any little surplus of revenue, or the increasing produce of particular branches, but should be founded on some great, solid, and productive tax, proportioned as much as possible to the wealth of the nation, and the debts it has incurred. For that purpose, no plan would be so effectual, as a permanent regulation, by which every individual, having property in England, whether natives or foreigners, was under the necessity of leaving to the public, at least one half of his clear annual income.

income in this country, at the time of his death. No testament ought to be valid, without such a bequest; and if any person died intestate, a year's income should be exacted. A revenue of this kind, would always keep the debts of a nation within moderate bounds, and could hardly be evaded.

The care of such an unalienable sinking fund, should be entrusted to individuals peculiarly responsible for its success. A special commission should be appointed for that purpose alone. A different set of individuals should be pitched upon to pay off public debts, from those by whom they are contracted; and the progress made in discharging the incumbrances of a nation, ought never to be so involved with other operations of finance, as to become imperceptible to the eye of the public.

In addition to these articles, our author proposes, that every means should be adopted for encouraging individuals, when they had no near relations, to leave their property to the public; and that peculiar checks and securities ought to be contrived to prevent the embezzlement of the money which is borrowed upon the national credit.

In the remaining chapters, the author recites the rise and progress of our present national debts, in the course of which narrative he gives a general view of them at the different periods of their accumulation; concluding with an account of the steps hitherto taken to diminish the capital, and reduce the interest; and of the several plans which have been suggested for that purpose. Through the whole of the History, Mr. Sinclair discovers faithful attention to facts, which he has likewise industriously collected. He examines the opinions of different writers with impartiality; and makes such judicious reflections, as must not only render the present volume acceptable to political readers, but induce them to wish that he may continue a work, which, so far as he has already proceeded, he has, in our opinion, executed with ability.

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*Remarks upon the History of the Landed and Commercial Policy of England, from the Invasion of the Romans to the Accession of James the First. In two Volumes. Small 8vo. 6s. sewed.*  
Brooke.

TO trace the progress of society from a state of rudeness to that of refinement, is one of the most entertaining speculations on the subject of politics. In such an enquiry we not only behold the genuine characters of men when destitute of civilization, but have an opportunity to observe the gradual development of the human mind in the exertion of its most valuable faculties. As the wealth and populousness of a nation are chiefly derived from husbandry, manufactures, and commerce,

commerce, nothing can prove more useful towards displaying the importance of these arts, than exhibiting a view of the public prosperity, which must always result from their improvement. In the period which is the object of the Remarks now before us, the author enjoys an ample prospect for a variety of political observation. He discovers the rudiments of the useful arts whilst just emerging into existence in this country; and he traces them, through many vicissitudes of fortune, to an epoch when they attained a signal degree of cultivation.

The work begins with remarks upon the landed and commercial policy of the ancient Britons; in treating of which he adopts the distinction usual with philosophical writers, of considering mankind in three different lights, as savages, shepherds, and husbandmen.

Under the first of these they include such as subsist by fishing, the acquisitions of the chase, or the natural productions of the ground. The number of inhabitants in this state must, in general, be few: and they can unite together only in small parties, as the means of subsistence are oftentimes scanty and precarious. Every thing being common, and the property of the first occupier, no other law can be expected to take place than what depends in a great measure on personal strength. When men have so far advanced towards civilization as to obtain a distinct property in cattle, they have commonly claimed an exclusive right to particular districts, the boundaries of which have been settled by mutual agreement or long possession. In this state bodies of men may unite, in proportion to the richness of the soil, and the extent of the country they possess. As the property of every individual is easily ascertained, few regulations are necessary; and these are generally founded on custom, which holds the place of written laws. When agriculture is introduced, property becomes so various and complicated, that a code of laws is necessary to preserve it as well as to encourage industry. Cultivated lands yielding a greater produce than in a state of nature, a larger body of people may subsist together, and form an union for their security against foreign and domestic enemies. And as husbandry requires the aid of different arts to supply its wants, artificers and manufacturers are gradually formed, and the several occupations of life are allotted to particular persons, which in the other states are usually exercised by all the members. Ancient writers have therefore generally made agriculture and legislation coeval and attendant on each other.

According to the earliest accounts, the original inhabitants of Britain, though extremely uncultivated, were numerous and martial. But it is not improbable, as our author observes, that Cæsar magnified the number of Britons, either to give



give importance to his invasion of so distant a country, or through the want of proper information; and the Remarker is justly of opinion, that the produce of the British lands, in their native and uncultivated state, as a great part of them undoubtedly was in the time of Cæsar, could not be so considerable as to maintain a numerous body of the people. The number of inhabitants in every country destitute of commerce, he observes, is always proportioned to the quantity of food which the soil or the neighbouring seas or rivers afford; and the northern Britons are said to have abstained from eating fish. Our author has not, in this part of the work, taken into account the provisions afforded by the chase, which is so common an exercise in every uncultivated country; but we join with him in thinking, for the reasons he has mentioned, and for others which might be assigned, that the inhabitants of Britain, before the invasion of the Romans, were in reality not so numerous as they have been represented by ancient writers; whose testimony, however, we are ready to admit, with respect to what is remarked by our author in the subsequent quotation.

‘ We are sometimes apt to consider the descriptions which the Greek and Roman writers have left us of ancient Gaul, Germany, and Britain, as fabulous, and owing to their ignorance of these regions. A part of their accounts was undoubtedly received from merchants or soldiers, who, presuming on the ignorance or credulity of their hearers, took the liberty to magnify what they had seen or learnt from report. But the temperature of the air is so widely different in cultivated and uncultivated countries, though lying under the same latitudes, that there is no reason to distrust the veracity of these writers in the relations they have given us of the northern parts of Europe. Some countries, which were then looked upon to be almost uninhabitable through the extremity of cold, afford many conveniences of life, and produce grain and fruits which were then thought to be incompatible with the climate. And the cultivated tracts of a country will have a beneficial influence upon others that lie at a considerable distance. Every part of England and France feels the advantages of the improved agriculture of their northern neighbours, and enjoys a warmth and temperature of air unknown in former ages.’

The second chapter contains remarks upon the landed and commercial policy of the Britons under the Roman government. It is beyond a doubt, that the conquest of this country by the Romans contributed greatly to its civilization. Whether it was that the Romans regarded the offices of husbandry as servile, or that this employment was best calculated to keep the people in subjection, it seems to be certain, as

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our author observes, that agriculture was enforced in the different provinces of the empire. The advancement of this art in Britain, under the government of the Romans, appears to be faithfully described by the author, in the following extract.

‘ The Roman colonists, who settled in Britain, would undoubtedly apply themselves to the cultivation of the lands in their neighbourhood, and endeavour to teach the natives by example their own mode of husbandry, as far it was applicable to the soil and climate. But the number of colonists was too small to have an extensive influence. Equal benefits arose from the legions, which were quartered in different parts of the island. As soon as the natives were reduced to submission, the soldiers would either till, or oblige them to assist in tilling, the adjacent lands, in order to supply themselves with better provisions than the coarse food of the inhabitants. In process of time, villages were built near these military stations; and such of the natives, as chose to imitate the manners of the Romans, put themselves under their protection, and cultivated their lands in greater security from the inroads of their countrymen than they could in many other places. And, for the better protection of the people, the troops were quartered in such parts as were best adapted for maintaining the internal peace and tranquillity of the provinces. As many Britons had retired into Wales and the northern parts of the island, and annoyed both the Romans and their countrymen by their incursions, the military forces were so disposed as to guard against them in the most effectual manner. The legions stationed at Gloucester, Chester, and Carlisle, and the walls and ramparts thrown up by Adrian and Severus, are instances of the care they took to preserve domestic tranquillity.’

In the third chapter, the author delineates the landed and commercial policy of England, under the Anglo-Saxon government. This period introduced a great revolution in the landed property and manners of the Britons. It seems to have rather encouraged than diminished an attention to agriculture, though those who chiefly cultivated this useful art were loaded with many oppressive duties and exactions.

‘ Landed property, says our author, being considered by the Saxons as of no other use than as the means of supplying them with provisions, and the common necessities of life, without being obliged to purchase them of others, it was disposed of in such a manner as to answer these ends by dividing it into small parcels, and exacting a sum of money, or a portion of the product, from some tenants, and labour, or particular services, from others. The demesnes of the lords and gentry were commonly sufficient to furnish them with corn and cattle for the maintenance of their families; and other parts of their estates were disposed of on such terms as to supply them with carriages  
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and labourers. To some tenants a small portion of land was granted, in consideration of working particular days for their landlord; others were bound to carry out the manure to his demesne-lands; to reap, mow, or carry his corn or hay; to shoe his horses, and find the iron; to fence a few yards of his park, or to fetch timber from the woods; to supply him with a quantity of honey or malt; to carry his provisions when he travelled, or at particular times to treat his steward or bailiff. In short, every tenant, according to his circumstances, was obliged to lend assistance to his landlord. The ceorles assisted him with their plows and carriages, and the cottagers and serfs with their labour. Whenever these sorts of tenants were obliged to attend, it was commonly fixed, how many hours they should work, and how much they should pay for the neglect; what quantity of meat or drink should be allowed, and at what times they should work without any gratuity. Sometimes particular days were appointed for their attendance, and at other times they were obliged to attend on the summons of the bailiff.

In the fourth chapter the author prosecutes the subject, from the Norman conquest to the succession of Henry the Third. From the extraordinary passion for the chace, which so much actuated the princes of the Norman line, the agriculture of England appears to have derived no advantage, in consequence of this revolution; and her commerce, which had been slowly advancing under the Saxon government, was yet impeded by great encumbrances.

‘ In every country, says our author, where honour and respect are annexed only to the profession of arms, trade will be looked upon as disgraceful to the gentry, and consigned to Jews, usurers, and the lowest of the people. And, if commerce had been a more creditable employment, it could not flourish under the arbitrary exactions of the monarchs of those times, who assumed a sovereign jurisdiction over all its branches, and frequently seized the merchandise of the subjects or aliens without distinction. The duties or customs levied on goods imported or exported were, for some time after the Conquest, in a great measure undetermined, and collected by officers, who sometimes plundered, instead of protecting the merchants. Through interest or bribes, a licence to trade might be obtained from the crown by particular persons; and if a few were enriched by the grant, the industry of others was proportionably discouraged. So far was commerce thought to be at the disposal of the king, or under the controul of his officers, that it was dangerous to intermeddle in any of its branches without having obtained leave, by a fine or a present. Every privilege relative to trade was exposed to sale, and might be obtained for a valuable consideration. And traffic, even in the most necessary articles, was under great restrictions. The people were compelled

pelled to pay a fine for leave to export corn, leather, cheese, or any other commodity; to remove corn from one county to another; to sell dyed cloth, or to salt fish in a particular manner. The king's officers were seldom to be approached by the subjects without a present in their hands, though this was sometimes extremely trifling. When nothing of greater value could be extorted, they stooped to receive a hawk, hound, or a few fowls, for granting what justice and public utility required.

The next chapter presents us with remarks on the period, from the accession of Henry the Third, to the reign of Henry the Seventh. Both the Charter of Liberty, and that of the Forest, were favourable to the prosperity of the nation, and served to encourage improvements in agriculture, as well as to extend the bounds of commerce. The rigour of villinage, so pernicious to liberal industry, received some abatement; and men began to exert themselves with greater spirit in the acquisition of property, which they could now more securely enjoy, under the protection of laws better calculated than they had been of late for the preservation of public freedom. But it was long before the prejudices of a martial people could be perfectly reconciled to the peaceable occupations of commerce.

In the period which is the subject of the sixth and last chapter, namely, from the accession of Henry the Seventh to the end of the reign of queen Elizabeth, the prosperity of the nation, both in agriculture and commerce, advanced with quicker steps than had been known in any former epoch of the English history.

The enlarged state of commerce, says the author, gave an influence to the mercantile state of the nation. Enabled, by the profits of their traffic abroad, to assist the crown with money in the times of public exigence, they met with that encouragement from the sovereign, and respect from the parliament, which will always be attendant on wealth. And by the same means they obtained an influence in the legislature; and though they were not always guided by public interest, yet they assisted in suggesting and applying the properest measures for maintaining and enlarging the commerce of the nation. The charters of the boroughs and corporate towns, and monopolies in some branches of trade, granted by the crown, impeded for a time the progress of commerce, both at home and abroad; but the influence of the corporations was so great, and exclusive charters to trading companies were thought so useful or necessary, that they met with little opposition from the parliament. When many patents and monopolies were suppressed by Elizabeth, the chartered powers of corporations and trading companies, though at that time almost equally oppressive, passed unnoticed; or, if abuses were complained of, they

they were never redressed. Trade, nevertheless, under all these restrictions, kept gradually increasing, and making an addition to the wealth and number of the people. So many new connections were formed by our merchants in foreign countries, that an interruption of trade in one place was regained by its progress in another. While Spain was neglecting its manufactures and agriculture, and relying for its chief support on the produce of its American mines, England was laying the foundation of a more durable power, in its commerce, navy, and industry of its people.

• And the landowners felt the influence of an extended commerce, and of the improved circumstances of the inferior rank of subjects. These were enabled now by the profits of their labour to purchase the products of the lands and the conveniences of life at higher rates, and to live in a more comfortable manner, than in preceding ages. The nobility and gentry, having now no longer occasion for the service of their tenants and vassals, augmented their rents, and enforced an industry to which they had not been accustomed. And the high price of grain, by permitting its export, enabled them to discharge this advance of their rents. Instead of the villains and cottagers, a body of yeomen began to be formed, whose circumstances permitted them to occupy larger farms, to cultivate them in a better manner, and to make a more ample provision for the support of their families. A bare subsistence had been the lot of almost all the ancient occupiers. Their farms were too small to afford more, and their circumstances were too mean for undertaking the management of a larger quantity of land, that might have yielded a more comfortable maintenance.

• The improving state of our trade, manufactures, and husbandry, imperceptibly emancipated the descendants of the ancient villains or serfs, who, although free as to their persons, were still considered in some places as annexed to the manor. There were now so many ways of obtaining their liberty, by engaging in the navy, manufactories, and other occupations, that they could not be held any longer in confinement. The boroughs, though at that time the seats of monopolies and oppression, or, as lord Bacon styles them, fraternities in evil, had long received the fugitives from the lands and tyranny of the barons, and by a year's residence secured their liberty. And the free and improved state of the lower classes of the people led them to industry; and this introduced regularity and order. The nation seemed to be roused from its former inactivity, and ready to engage in any undertaking that promised an improvement in its state. And the commons, who had formerly been depressed by the aristocracy, were now enabled by their wealth to acquire so much influence in the legislature, as to controul the exorbitant power and prerogative of the crown, which, if unrestrained, might have been fatal to liberty and the public welfare.

The remarks in these volumes may be considered as a general history of the agriculture and commerce of England, to the beginning of the seventeenth century. The subject, separately viewed, affords no brilliant incidents which can prove interesting to curiosity; but it places in a clear light the necessary connexion between those useful arts and that state of public freedom, in which alone they ever can flourish in any extraordinary degree. Most of the observations contained in this production are to be found in Dr. Henry's History of Great Britain, and other works; but they have the advantage of being collected by the author of the Remarks in an uninterrupted detail.

*An Essay on the Polity of England.. 8vo. 6s. in Boards. Cadell.*

Numerous are the encomiums and remarks, which have been made on the British constitution, both by foreign and domestic writers; and amidst all its defects, this celebrated system of polity, hardly known even in idea to the ancients, remains the admiration of modern times. Some public events and popular doctrines having of late years called the attention of political enquirers to the principles of our government, the author of the present Essay appears to have engaged in the same disquisition, with the laudable view of ascertaining the grievances complained of, and pointing out the most effectual remedies. It affords us pleasure to find, at setting out, that he explodes the odious distinction of the king's friends, and the friends of the people; and professes to write as a friend to the constitution, or, in other words, a friend both to the king and the people. This is the only rational and unprejudiced manner of treating the subject; and they who are governed by any other principle of enquiry, let them affect or really be actuated by the greatest zeal, adhere not to the interests of their country.

The author begins with taking a view of the executive power; in considering which he endeavours to evince, that the English government, though apparently monarchical, is, in reality, rather a republic. But by this assertion, we understand him to mean nothing more than that the power of the house of commons, particularly in granting the supplies, amounts to a virtual ascendancy in this branch of the legislature.

‘In a word, says he, in England, the king is called sovereign; yet, in truth, the real, supreme, irresistible, absolute, uncontrollable authority, in which the *jura summi imperii*, or the rights of sovereignty, reside, is vested, not in the monarch only,

only, but in the king, lords, and commons united; in other words, in the legislature. The king is, in fact, little more than the great administrator of the government, or executive power: it may, therefore, perhaps justly be questioned, whether the appellation of sovereign hath, in reality, produced that respect which was intended; or, by attributing to him the sole power of government, it hath not rather lessened the esteem for his authority; and by directing the people of late years, in their search for a redress of grievances, to a wrong object, it hath not contributed to the increase of our misfortunes, rather than afforded the means of redress.

The author next takes a view of the origin of the English constitution, under the feudal system of government; observing that, as a rule of civil polity, this system was extremely defective; and that in consequence of such deficiency, the judicial power was separated from the executive, and the constitution, progressively, was improved in several other particulars. He then traces the rise and progress of that power which has been acquired by the house of commons; and shews the danger which might result from its encroachment on the peculiar rights of the monarchical part of the constitution.

In the Second Book, the author treats of the caution which seems to be necessary in reducing either the prerogative, or the influence of the crown; which, he thinks, are very far from being in any degree formidable at present; and in this opinion he has been enabled to support his argument both by facts and authorities.

In the Third Book, he considers the nature of the grievances complained of; with the view to discover the principle from which they originate; and the remedies most likely to correct them. He states those complaints under the general heads of being unsuccessful abroad, and unhappy and prodigal at home; affirms that faction and corruption are the cause of the grievances; and makes the following observations on the means of obviating these sources of national misfortune.

Such being the mischiefs arising from faction and corruption, it will behove us carefully to provide against them. And as prevention is better than cure, perhaps no one thing will be more likely to answer the purpose, than that system in which every member of parliament shall find it his best interest to consult that of the public. That system, therefore, must be erroneous, which permits any permanent interest in the representative assembly. If the members of the lower house of parliament were truly elective, they would be under the controul of the people: they would be truly, at least to every useful purpose, a democratic assembly. The great body of the people,

not being able to make laws in person, if those to whom they delegated that trust should betray them, on a fresh election they could remove them. But if the members of the house of commons be hereditary, they become aristocratic; and whatever dangerous designs they may entertain, they can defy the people's voice. If, in short, elections were free, integrity, and not oratory, would be deemed the best qualification of the candidates. Men of property would be chosen, and needy adventurers excluded. Under the management of such men, one might hope for public virtue. One would hope their own interest in the state would secure them from faction; and render them superior to corruption. And, added to this, if their delegation were of short duration, a still farther security would be afforded. It would be the interest of such men to prefer their permanent property in the state, to a little temporary advantage; for little the advantage must be, if all permanent interest in the house of commons were excluded: were parliaments of short duration, and truly elective, it would require the mines of Potosi to corrupt them.

The author prosecutes the subject through many chapters, and under a variety of distinct heads, which to enumerate would prove tedious to our readers, he endeavours to establish the opinion, that a defect in the representation is the cause of our public calamities; and that, according to the present mode of the election of representatives, the house of commons tends to an aristocracy. Amongst a variety of remarks relative to this subject, he observes, that to maintain a freedom of election in counties, the number of voters, instead of being increased, ought to be diminished, by increasing the qualification. This, he is of opinion, would be productive of many good effects. It would shorten the time usually spent in the election, and prevent drunkenness, riots, and tavern and other expences; besides, that bribery would be less practised amongst a set of independent, than of needy electors. He thinks that the present mode of election, both in counties and boroughs, is erroneous; for whilst the voters in the former are too numerous, those in the latter are too few. If there be likewise a fault in requiring more than one member for a place, he suggests that these objections might be removed, by requiring, not the counties or boroughs, but every market-town, and a certain district of the adjacent country, containing a sufficient number of adjoining parishes, to send one member.

In the Fourth Book, the author takes a general view of the statutes enacted at different times to remedy the grievances complained of; and in the Fifth, he considers the several schemes of private individuals for the accomplishment of the  
same



same purpose. Among the various improvements suggested, we meet the following in regard to the constitution of the house of peers.

As the house of lords are constituted on an idea of wisdom, impartiality, and justice; and dignity, that is, independence, is the very foundation of this principle, if one might presume to suggest an improvement in the house of lords, it should be, not to lessen their dignity, by diminishing or limiting the number of their members, but to increase their dignity, by requiring in them, or, at least, in all new-made peers, a qualification so ample, that their own possessions should give a security against corruption, and insure in them a common interest with the community; an idea which is the foundation of that virtue, or principle, on which the house of commons also is founded. From the bishops, indeed, no qualification can be required; as they hold their seats by virtue of their ancient spiritual territories, called, under the Saxons, *frank-almoign*, or free alms; changed, by William the Conqueror, into the feudal or Norman tenure by barony; and the rather too, as they hold their honours but for life. Restore the dignity of the ancient barons, and the house of peers will, in some measure, be restored to their ancient weight in the scale of government. If a qualification be requisite in the members of the lower house of parliament, is it not strange no qualification should be required in the members of the highest; and especially, when (to repeat what is said before) their territories, which are to give them dignity, are the very foundation of the principle of their constitution? Should a peer be so indiscreet as to reduce his fortune, and become dependent, he ought to be degraded. A state of dependence is inconsistent with the dignity which is required in a peer of Great Britain. Whenever it shall happen, that men in distressed circumstances shall make a part of the British peerage, undoubtedly the equilibrium of power would be endangered. Contrary to their institution, it would invite, what of all other things ought to be avoided, ill-designing parties, faction, and their concomitant corruption. Whereas, the opulence and dignity of the peers of Great Britain should be such as to preclude, as far as human provisions can preclude, both faction and corruption; or, in the language of sir William Blackstone, their subservience to either of the other branches of the legislature. As the law pays that regard to the word, or honour, as it is called, of a peer, as to esteem it equal to another man's oath, so his actions should have that respect paid to them, as not even to be suspected.

On the whole, the author of this Essay has taken an extensive view of the polity of England, and collected a variety of observations; as well as made several remarks of his own, on this fruitful and interesting subject. The grand specific which he, like every other writer who has treated of political evils,

from the days of Aristotle to the present time, proposes, is to extinguish corruption in the affairs of government. That this would prove a remedy for all public grievances, is universally acknowledged; and the only question is, the most successful means of accomplishing this desirable purpose.

*Dialogues concerning the Ladies. To which is added an Essay on the Ancient Amazons. Small 8vo. 3s. sewed. Cadell.*

**D**ialogue is a mode of composition sacred from its antiquity; entertaining as well as instructive, from its employing a variety of interlocutors of different manners, style, and pursuits. It was once cultivated with peculiar care, and the persons introduced were the most respectable, for the different qualifications which the author intended to recommend or enforce. Precepts from such instructors came with additional energy. This was the opinion of Cicero: 'we have not introduced Tithonus as a speaker,' says he, in his introduction to the Dialogue on Old Age, 'for there would be little weight in a fabulous personage; but Marcus Cato, already grown old, that the argument may be enforced with greater authority. We introduce Lælius and Scipio, at his house, surprised that he bears his age so easily, and Cato answering them. If he seems to contend with more learning than we perceive in his writings, you will attribute it to the Grecian literature, which, in his advanced life, he was very eager to attain.' In the Dialogue 'on Friendship,' he has introduced the speakers still more artificially, and seems almost to relate a conversation which had formerly passed; though there is more than one hint, that the greater part of it is his own. This kind of discourse, says he, 'which rests on the authority of our ancestors, especially those which were illustrious, has, somehow, more weight.'

In our own time, this ancient form has been revived with singular success by Dr. Hurd. Perhaps there is no work more classical in any modern language; nor any, since the days of Plato, more valuable for the judgment of the precepts, and the simple energy of the style. All these works recurred to our mind on reading the title of that before us. The learned reader will therefore judge of our disappointment and disgust, when we perceived the most trifling discourse, between the personages of a modern novel, in language that, so far from arising to elegance, sometimes creeps in the lowest colloquial strain. Authors are often injudicious, in forcing a comparison on their readers minds, which must be ultimately disadvantageous to their works: perhaps, if we had not been soon disgusted with the substance, we might have thought the language

guage neat and clear ; the anecdotes at least entertaining. But our readers shall judge for themselves.

*Mr. Percival.* Such a female character will certainly be a great improvement of your company, and especially to me ; for I can truly say, with Montaigne, that “ the conversation of beautiful and well-bred women is to me a most sweet commerce.” I do, however, sometimes meet with ladies, whom, I confess, I have not gallantry enough to admire. In walking up the park yesterday, about an hour before dinner-time, I met Mrs. Stanhope, who has an advantageous person, and her dress was very splendid and attractive. But she is so vain, and so ignorant, that the impressions which her figure at first makes in her favour, are very speedily removed by her extreme frivolousness and manifest affectation. Her own person, and her own dress, seem, indeed, to be almost the only objects of her attention.

*Mr. Wyndham.* It has, in former times, been a subject of debate, whether women ought to be allowed to proceed to great degrees of expence and luxury, with respect to the decoration of their bodies. The fathers, and particularly St. Jerom, were very severe in their animadversions upon the ladies on this head. And I remember, that Bayle gives an account of a controversy on this subject, which originated from some sermons of Timotheus Mapheus, preached at Bologna, in which he had maintained, that women ought to be forbidden all superfluity of dress by a public decree. His eloquence had so powerful an effect, if not upon the ladies, at least upon the magistrates, that a decree was accordingly issued against the licentiousness of female dress. The women, however, were not without their advocates on this occasion ; and more than one piece was published to shew, that the ladies should have liberty to adorn themselves, and ought not to be deprived of their ornaments. As to myself, I shall not inquire, whether a greater licentiousness of dress be not now adopted, even by modest women, than is in any respect proper or expedient, and such as would formerly have been thought characteristic only of women of pleasure : but I will at least venture to say this, that when so much pains and expence are employed on the decoration of the body, the mind should not be wholly left uncultivated. An elegant dress, and an agreeable person, would be rendered still more pleasing by a refined and cultivated understanding.

The anecdotes are chiefly from Ballard’s ‘ *Memoirs of Learned Ladies*,’ and Millar ‘ *on the Distinction of Ranks in Society*.’ Indeed, though the learned reader may soon participate in our feelings, there are humbler minds who may

find both instruction and entertainment in these Dialogues. But, even as modern performances, there is not sufficient discrimination of character and style \*.

The account of the Antient Amazons is taken from Herodotus, Diodorus Siculus, Justin, Plutarch, &c. Every part of this description resembles a true story, heightened by a romantic imagination: even Plutarch allows, that great deductions should be made from the general relation, to reconcile it with truth. Female warriors were not indeed uncommon in antient times; and they seem to have been unusually frequent in Scythia, from whence some of them probably emigrated into Africa. Every thing else is fable and uncertainty; but we did not suspect, at this period, that any one believed them to have been deprived of their right breast, in order that they might more conveniently use the right arm. It is indeed mentioned by Herodotus, from whom it seems to have been copied by subsequent authors; but it is not supported by the general consent of antiquity: the poets, who most frequently introduce them, have given a very different testimony. Virgil describes the dress of Penthesilæa in the following manner:

‘ Aurea subnectens ~~exerta~~ cingula mamma  
Bellatrix.’

In these lines ‘*exertæ*’ has been always rendered *cut off*, without the shadow of an authority. ‘*Dentes exerti*,’ in Pliny, means teeth not covered with the jaw; ‘*exerti enses*,’ in Ovid, *drawn swords*. Even Virgil uses ‘*exerta papilla*’ on a very different occasion. It is evident therefore that, in this passage, the breast is only represented uncovered. Claudian, in his panegyric on the consulship of Probinus and Olybrius, describes Rome emulating Minerva.

‘ Dextram nuda latus niveos exerta lacertos  
Audacem reteggit mammam.’

In this instance, to ‘conquer the Parthians,’ or ‘restrain the Hydaspe,’ she must have cut off her arms, if this be the meaning of *exerta*. We could accumulate quotations, to show, that in sculpture and poetry, the Amazons were never represented in this manner, but with the right breast naked. We shall

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\* May we venture to suggest a plan, which arose from our perusal of this work? Female Dialogues may be probably written so as to afford great instruction. Suppose, for instance, one between Miss Carter, lady Millar, and Mrs. Macaulay Graham, on female dress, and the relative importance of ornaments and intellectual acquisitions. Another between Madame de Chatelet and Mrs. Montague, on the merits of Shakspeare.—Another, between Mrs. Chapone and Miss Seward, on the different female accomplishments. A work of this kind, if well executed, would probably be very successful.

however, only transcribe the following passages from Propertius, and the abbé Winkelman.

‘—— Amazonidum nudatis bellica mammis

Turba.’

Book iii. Eleg. 14.

Again,

‘Felis Hyppolite nudâ tulit arma papilla.’ Book iv. Eleg. 3.

The abbé tells us ‘ Parmi les figures *ideales*, nous ne voyons que les Amazones avec de grosses & d’amples mammelles; aussi comme elles represent des femmes, & non des filles, le bout de leur sein est visible.’ Histoire de l’Art de l’Antiquité, tom. ii. p. 151.

The Observer. 8vo. 6s. Dilly.

UNDER this title, the author has collected some miscellaneous essays; and they are published in a volume, though they have never appeared in a detached form. We need not enquire into the disadvantages which would have arisen from a different plan: if the materials are good, it is of little consequence whether they are compressed in a single dish, or more ostentatiously displayed, with all the splendor of a modern entertainment. Our author himself recommends, that we should ‘praise without comparison,’ if we praise at all; so that we are excluded from ascertaining his rank in the procession of different journalists, or enquiring in what he may be supposed an imitator, or where he would rise to the dignity of an original. If we consider then this collection of papers, without referring to the labours of others in the same walk, we should pronounce them neither void of entertainment or instruction. The author’s lucubrations are on subjects frequently peculiar to himself, and his reading has been often at a distance from the usual tracts. His pictures of life and manners are not distinguished by the vivacity of an original observer, but seem rather the fictions of the closet: and sometimes the recollection of others’ descriptions appears to have been the source from whence he has drawn a scene, rather than invention.

The ‘*sarrago libelli*,’ as usual in such circumstances, consists of various subjects. The only attempt at a new character, or rather a new drawing, is in that of the Dampers; and it is executed with spirit and justness. The species of this race are well known: they are the enemies of vivacity, and the checks of mirth; they silence the sprightly jest by an ill-timed question, and blast the harmless smile by the scrutinizing brow of suspicion, or the sneer of malice. For the particular traits,

traits, we must refer to our author. The stories of Calliope and Melissa are amusing; but they consist of little except common situations, in no unusual style. The story of Abdalla and Zarima is less trite; and the Diary of Chaubert exhibits a well-drawn picture of a misanthrope. The account of magic, with the anecdotes of magicians, is written in a lively manner, and is extremely interesting: the facts are not common, and the remarks are ingenious.

The great object of the work is to give a 'compressed and unmixed' account of the Literature of the Greeks, 'carrying down the history, in a chain of anecdotes, 'from the earliest poets, to the death of Menander.' It is not pretended that this is entirely original: many parts of it are commonly known, and the Twenty-sixth Number on the great Libraries of Antiquity, is nearly the same with the relation of Mr. Asle, in his Origin and Progress of Writing. The Life of Pythagoras is clear and accurate; but our author has not remarked the very extensive influence of his opinions, or hinted at the hidden meaning of some of his peculiar tenets. There is much reason to think, that a great part of the philosophy of Greece was a transcript only from the doctrines of this early and extensive enquirer, who pierced through the mystery of the pagan theology, and saw, in the opinions of the Egyptians, that truth, which many of the Grecian travellers had misunderstood and misrepresented. The Mysteries of numbers, and the Golden thigh, also served probably to hide some important doctrines: these have been explained with much plausibility, though we cannot now say with how much truth, by Mr. Tucker, under the assumed name of Edward Search. Our author's account of Homer is just and satisfactory; but when we read his relation of the manner in which his rhapsodies were probably connected by Pisistratus, we could not refrain from making a modern application, and, for the Grecian bard and his collector, substituting the names of Ossian and Macpherson. We suspect it might then be a true account of the origin of Fingal and Temora.

The Athenian Vision is well invented, and with one single failure, supported with propriety. The author unfortunately mentions the modern painter Mengs. We were indeed surprised at his speaking of Micon as the rival of Polygnotus, the celebrated Athenian painter, since we have not been able to find any authority for his existence. Aristotle, in his *Poetics*, cap. ii. p. 236, opposes him to Pauson and Dionysius, in which he holds the first rank, and Dionysius the second; but probably this subject may be better elucidated by count Caylus, in his memoir 'on the Painting of the Ancients,' among the

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Memoirs of the Academy of Belles Lettres \*. We have already observed, that Orpheus probably did not write the treatise Περὶ Λιθῶν, which the author attributes to him.

The language of this work is very incorrect; and those who examine it will think the Observer has acted politically, in wishing to avoid comparisons. *Peritresion*, *column*, and some other words, may be attributed to the printer; but *pailing*, *detering*, *vouchsafements*, and similar ones, must be owing to the author. Reviewers are the guardians of language, and we cannot suffer these errors to escape without reprehension. The construction too is often faulty. 'This is not the case with *them* who are born.' It is *better* to make a breach in any thing, *rather* than good manners. If the observations are pursued, similar mistakes, for they are numerous, must be avoided. We cannot forgive the musician, 'chordâ qui *semper* oberrat eadem.'

*A Reply to the Treasury Pamphlet, entitled 'The proposed System of Trade with Ireland explained.'* 8vo. 2s. DeBrett.

THE proposed system of trade between Great Britain and Ireland being a matter of national importance, ought to be investigated by the friends of the two countries with the strictest impartiality, and by those of the former, in particular, with all possible precision. In conformity to these principles, in our last Review, we laid before our readers such an account of the pamphlet on that subject, as might afford sufficient information with respect to the arguments which it contained. From the same regard to free discussion, and to the great commercial interests involved in the system now agitated, we shall likewise exhibit the most essential observations which occur in the present Reply,

After some remarks of a general nature, the author examines the validity of the argument relative to the foundation of complaint, on the part of Ireland, in being restricted from importing into this country the produce of the British colonies. The author's sentiments on this subject coincide with those of lord Sheffield, which we lately had occasion to mention, and ought certainly to have great weight in the deliberations for compromising the different claims of Britain and Ireland.

\* We have since found Micon, mentioned by Pliny; and the following passage is literally copied by our author. 'Hic Delphis ædem pinxit, hic & Athenis porticum, quæ Pæcile vocatur gratulæ, cum partem ejus Micon mercede pingeret.' Lib. xxv. cap. 9.

‘In the hour of our liberality, says, he, we gave her (Ireland) every thing, except what we could not have given her, without ruin to ourselves. We removed every restraint that could fetter her industry; we opened to her the trade of our colonies with the rest of the world, and bid her go in search of wealth in every port that would admit her traders.—We promised her encouragement; we promised her protection. All we reserved, was the exclusive privilege of supplying our own markets with the produce of our own colonies, without suffering the benefits and advantages of that commerce to be intercepted by the way, or diverted into other channels. In other words, we gave liberty and encouragement to our sister kingdom to get rich at the expence of all the rest of the world, if she could, and only provided that she should not intercept our wealth, or establish her fortunes at our expence.

‘In this truly generous and equitable arrangement, Ireland had every cause to be grateful, and none to complain. We did her no injustice; we withheld from her no right. Our colonies were the purchase of her own blood, the acquisition of our own treasures, and the work of our own industry. Their settlement or their maintenance never cost Ireland a farthing—they were our own offspring, and we had entered into such a compact with them as that relation suggested. We engaged ourselves to purchase their commodities, to the exclusion of all similar productions in every other country; and they pledged themselves, in return, to carry those commodities to no other market but ours. We undertook all risks for their protection, and they reserved to us all the benefits arising from that security.

‘Such is the connection, which, by every principle of justice, by the law of nations, and by the custom of all the other powers of Europe, has been universally acknowledged to subsist between the mother country and her colonies. A trade with them of any kind, or of any extent, must have been, therefore, considered as a favour granted to Ireland; nor could she have a shadow of pretext for complaining of any reserve, much less of a reserve which, while it left her in equal possession of every other advantage, merely secured us against any future rivalry on her part in our own markets.’

In ‘The Proposed System of Trade with Ireland Explained,’ it was argued, that the Irish were not likely to supply England with the commodities of Africa and America, ‘because it will not be contended that the shortest and cheapest way of importing goods from Africa and America to this country is, by carrying them first into a port of Ireland, and then bringing them from thence to a port here.’ On this passage the author of the Reply animadverts with his usual vivacity; but we cannot help thinking that he deviates from the direct line of argument, as if actuated with *circuitous* reasoning, into

vague



vague declamation. That our readers however may judge for themselves, the following extract is inserted.

‘ But it was upon the very principle of this circuitous commerce that the whole system of our navigation laws was built. Can the author be so ignorant as to suppose that it was the immediate gain upon the commodities that induced our ancestors to confine the colonial and foreign trade? Was this the only benefit they meant to secure to their descendants by procuring for them their Great Sea Charter?—When he and the minister next read the navigation act together, a study which the latter has condescended to recommend to all the ignorant members of the house of commons, I would advise them to consider the preamble of the act which they distinguish by that name—The advantages attending the exchange of our colonial commodities, and the vent it occasioned for the native commodities of the kingdom—the rendering this country the staple of plantation goods as well as of the commodities of other countries for supplying the plantations; the increase of shipping and seamen, from the number of hands employed in the carriage, in the landing, in the storing, and re-shipping of the colonial produce, as well as of the productions of other countries, importing their merchandize in exchange; the various gradations of industry arising out of this complicated interchange, and the diffusion of wealth through every class of the people, from this self-multiplying commerce: these were the chief among the enlarged objects which the great characters who framed, explained, and methodised the navigation laws, embraced in their system. It was by having these great objects secured to her, that England became the emporium of Europe; the mart where other nations found the readiest and largest supplies, and the cheapest barter, and whence, by circuitous trade, these supplies were conveyed to every part of the globe. It was by this circuitous commerce that she indemnified herself for what nature had denied her, and made the produce of every climate, and every soil, her own. In a word, it was on the foundation of this circuitous commerce that she seated her naval power, and seizing the sceptre of the ocean, extended her conquests and her influence to every quarter of the world.’

Though it should be admitted that the author of the Reply is sometimes excursive in his mode of argument, we have sufficient proof that he can keep very closely to the point, when either the writer on whom he comments, or the minister, appears to be open to animadversion. But it is necessary that we confine ourselves to the essential objects in dispute.

After treating of the proposed system under general heads, he descends to particulars, and mentions different species of manufactures, in which he contends that Ireland would have greatly the advantage of this country. With respect to that

of silk, he affirms that the manufacturers have not hesitated to assert, that the British manufacturer, supposing the duties in both countries to be equalized, would have every reason to dread a competition from the Irish, even in the British market.

In regard to the woollen manufacture, particularly the old draperies, in which are included the finest cloths, he admits that this branch of the manufacture may not be *immediately* affected by the new system; but affirms, that the manufacturers have expressed apprehensions with respect to the future. He observes, that one of the principal reasons assigned by the evidence before the committee, why Ireland does not manufacture a greater quantity of finer cloth is, that they have not at present a sufficient number of skilful workmen to engage in it. But he adds, that from the vicinity of the two countries, and from the extraordinary bounties given for the encouragement of the manufacture of fine cloths by the Dublin Society, this circumstance is not likely to operate long in our favour. There would indeed be just cause for apprehension, if the security of our woollen manufactures depended entirely upon the circumstance here mentioned.

The author afterwards makes similar remarks, on the consequences which he alleges would result to the trade of refined sugars, cotton, leather, soap, and candles, and lastly to that of corn; to all which he subjoins some additional considerations, of which the following is a part.

‘ With respect to the equivalent that has been stipulated for all the sacrifices which we are to make to Ireland, the author sums it up in a very few lines. It consists, he says, in a monopoly of consumption, and an aid towards supporting the general expence of the empire.

‘ What the monopoly of consumption is, he does not chuse to tell us. I suppose he means that monopoly of trade which in the first pages of his pamphlet Ireland is said to give Great Britain at this moment. In that case there is nothing new given by Ireland—nothing that can be called a return for the intended indulgencies—Or would he insinuate, that the ninth resolution is favourable to Great Britain, and that the preference it stipulates for articles of her growth, produce, and manufacture, above similar articles imported into Ireland from foreign states, is amply to indemnify her for the superiority which the other resolutions will give to Ireland, as well in the British as in all foreign markets? The whole body of manufacturers throughout Great Britain are of a very different opinion.

‘ What the aid towards the general expences of the empire is to be, he does not tell us. “ Whatever surplus shall accumulate to the hereditary revenue from the increase of trade under the new regulations, above a stated sum; Ireland is to apply to  
naval

naval services, the particulars of which may be ascertained by the bill to be passed in that country for appropriating that surplus."—Here we have the grand equivalent which the present minister is to secure to Great Britain, as well for the concessions which he himself is to grant to Ireland, as for the more lavish and impolitic concessions of former times and former ministers. But in the name of all that is due to an oppressed and insulted nation, to what does this equivalent amount? An increase of revenue, which is avowedly to arise from a participation of the profits of the British commerce, is to indemnify Great Britain for the sacrifice of these profits! The emigration of British manufacturers, the transfer of British wealth, the defalcation of British revenue, and the general impoverishment of the British people, are all to be compensated by the generosity of Ireland in consenting that her own parliament shall appropriate to whatever purposes they shall think fit, under the denomination of naval services, part of the resources which she is to acquire from the resort and imported industry of these manufacturers, from the influx of that wealth, and from the depredations upon this revenue. Is, then, the commerce of Great Britain to become more advantageous to her when transferred to Ireland, than when she reserved all the benefits of it to her own subjects, and applied a proportion of it to the public exigences? Are these profits worse applied as pledges for the payment of the national debt, and resources for future expenditure, than when they shall be at the disposal of the parliament of an independent kingdom, for the protection of a trade that is to be enriched at our expense?

On most of the articles of which he treats, his objections appear to be forcible. But as they depend upon the evidence of manufacturers, with which we are as yet but little acquainted, the validity of the arguments can only be appreciated by a knowledge of the judgment and sincerity of those manufacturers. Uncertainty may raise doubts, and a regard to interest may excite apprehensions, neither of which have any solid foundation; but, until deliberate enquiry shall have ascertained that both those doubts and apprehensions are groundless, it would be unpardonable rashness to make such concessions as might endanger the prosperity of the nation. In the adjustment of the proposed commercial regulations, it ought likewise never to be forgotten, that no argument in favour of them, and drawn from the present state of Ireland, can be of perpetual validity; because from the moment that those regulations are enacted, the circumstances of that country will be in continual progression; and what at present is equality will, in the revolution of some years, be found productive of a new, and then, an irremediable distinction.

*A Dialogue between Dr. Johnson and Dr. Goldsmith, in the Shades, relative to the former's Strictures on the English Poets, particularly Pope, Milton, and Gray. 4to. 1s. 6d. Debrett.*

THE title gives a full account of what the reader may expect in this performance. The poor doctor pleads guilty to the charge of partiality.

' You say I envy'd ;—who's from envy free ?  
Yet objects now with different eyes I see.  
Thro' what false mediums do our passions shine !  
How gross affections that I thought divine !'

And again,

' Prejudice will veil the richest thought,  
And hurry misapply, and raise a fault.  
In Pope and Gray I've criticis'd a line  
Full oft, dear friend, that never must be mine.  
In Shakespearè, Milton, such resistless strains,  
Beyond the hopes of art, or patient pains.'

How far his opinion may alter in another state we know not : it would have required much greater abilities than our author possesses, to have extorted such acknowledgments from him some time since ; and it may be considered as rather unfair, to put sentiments in his mouth when dead, that he would have reprobated while alive. Though we apprehend part of the doctor's critique on Gray must excite disgust in many persons of taste, we cannot but consider *that* on Pope, as equally impartial, judicious, and elegant : and, though his political principles induced him to place Milton's in an unfavourable, possibly an uncandid, light, his opponents, equally biased by party-prejudice, have given the worst constructions to his sentiments they would possibly admit. We can find little else objectionable in the Life of Milton, but much deserving of the highest approbation. Whatever this gentleman may think, he is more obliged to his biographer, notwithstanding some censure intermingled with his praise, than to his bard, for such complimentary verses as the following :

' He taught the page to swell in bold relief,  
And rose secure from time and ev'ry thief ;  
For he who steals from him the lightest spark,  
Like Han, would hide the diamond in the dark.  
And say, what bard has Milton yet out-done ?  
His weakest wing has rested on the sun.'

These lines are strangely obscure and confused ; but those alluding to Pope, are more so :

' Or to Isaiah's numbers dare aspire,  
(Who sung Jehovah in Jehovah's fire)  
In all, the poet shines throughout confess'd,  
Not only happy, but too often blest ;

For shade is friendly to the feasted eye,  
As clouds betimes adorn the richest sky.—

The following character, given by Johnson, of the same poet, is probably inferior to nothing in this performance; and it is but fair to lay it before the reader :

‘ Tho’ his contention with the scribbling croud  
Was like the sun contending with a cloud,  
Which the next wind would hastily disperse,  
And leave the day as radiant as his verse ;  
Yet why should Pope attack, with keenest wit,  
The short-liv’d strains the poor Ephemeron writ ;  
Gay epigram, like squibs, that rose to stink,  
And elegies, that only mourn’d in ink ?’

*Creation, a Poem. By Samuel Hughes, M. A. 4to. 1s. Doddsley.*

IF this gentleman has not

‘ Undone creation at a jerk,’—  
he has certainly made ‘ sad work of it.’ The performance is undoubtedly a pious, but it is a very dull one : the sentiments are often just, but never new ; and the hackneyed images with which it abounds are generally expressed in a harsh, prosaic manner. Can any one, with half an ear, mistake the following lines for poetry ?

‘ Whither can the eye stretch and not behold.’—

‘ Resolve the question, matter is uncreate.’—

— ‘ E’en in the smallest work  
Of human art thou *see’st* design, and *own’st*—

‘ Its complex operations, still in its course’—

— ‘ Thou *dard’st* to break

The shakling bonds of slippant rhyme.’—

Surely the words marked in Italics are sufficient to break the reader’s teeth who wishes to give them full force in the pronunciation. We could add to this nosegay of poetic weeds, but shall content ourselves with exhibiting a specimen of our author’s descriptive talents. The quotation, we apprehend, alludes to the whale-fishery.

‘ The proud Leviathan himself, who stretch’d  
Upon the Ocean’s back, an island seems ;  
Or in rude gambols his unwieldy bulk  
*Writbing*, deems all the wat’ry realm his own.’

Or is connected with nothing preceding, and merely serves to make out a description taken from \* Milton ; the unhappy epithet ‘ writbing’ excepted, which is substituted for ‘ wallowing,’ and gives a most incongruous idea, when applied to a

\* See Paradise Lost, book vii. l. 410.

bulky object. The concluding words, as we profess our ignorance of the Leviathan's opinions, shall pass without a comment.

'E'en he, gigantic as he is, subdued  
By man's superior art, a victim falls;  
But not unprofitably falls. Though dead,  
He garnish not the festive board, or add  
Luxurious honor to the rich repast,  
Yet still, so provident is Nature's God,  
For him the sailor braves the stormy flood.'

Here, though Mr. Hayes condescends to inform us, that a whale is not killed for the same purpose as a turtle, to regale our festive aldermen, we think he might have told us on what account he fell a victim, and answered the end of his creation. But as spermaceti, blubber, and train-oil, would not appear to advantage in Miltonic verse, we shall excuse the omission, and proceed.

'E'en to the frozen North, where, six long moons,  
Inhospitable darkness shrouds the pole;  
Where snow eternal caps the mountains top,  
And threat'ning ice, in many a ridgy steep,  
Peers o'er the waves indissoluble, there,  
Reckless of danger, the bold sailor shapes  
His perilous course; in his own element  
Advent'rous seeks the giant, nor avoids  
Th' unequal conflict: in the trembling boat  
Fearless he stands, and launches from his arm  
The pointed weapon, conscious what a prize  
Awaits the issue of successful toil.'

Here we shall quit the giant, and the gigantic encomiums on our Greenland adventurers; who we find are not only 'fearless' and 'reckless of danger,' but that they do not even 'avoid an unequal conflict.' But where the inequality lies, excepting in their favour, we cannot see; or where a whale is to be sought, but in his 'own element.' Amplification is sometimes a beauty in poetry; that it is not always so, we trust our quotation sufficiently evinces.

Mr. Hayes' last poem, which obtained the university prize, though not a very capital performance, was infinitely superior to the present. We shall not presume to question the judgment of those who conferred it, though we cannot but express our surprise, that his claim to the rents of the Kissingbury farm is not disputed by some more lineal descendant of Apollo. To adopt the words of Shakspeare,

— 'Ye gods, it doth amaze us,  
A man of such a gentle temper, should  
So get the start of the majestic world,  
And bear the palm alone!'

The

*The Follies of Oxford: or Cursory Sketches on a University Education, from an Under Graduate to his Friend in the Country.*  
4to. 2s. Doddsley.

THIS young Oxonian's performance, for such it appears evidently to be, is not destitute of poetic, nor satyric merit. We are sometimes rather provoked at his negligence and incorrectness, as he could certainly have improved many passages had he paid proper attention to them. Some censures on the governing part of the university might have been omitted; and we can assure the under-graduate, it is generally supposed that academic regulations require enforcement, not relaxation. Here possibly 'the gall'd jade winces.' But it would not be fair to try a *jeu d'esprit*, like the present, with critical severity. In many passages, the author seems to have in his eye, *The Progress of Discontent*, a juvenile production of Mr. Watton's. The encomium on that gentleman, which concludes the poem, will, we apprehend, give no unfavourable idea of it.

'Pensive around the common room,  
While Warton "snuffs his pipe's perfume,"  
See C——, whose inglorious name  
Will never grace the rolls of fame,  
Strut dignified—with not a sprig  
Of bay leaves stuck about his wig!  
"Lo there" (indignant Genius cries)  
"In yon clipt shade, a Warton lies!  
How oft, while Eve her landscapes drew,  
He hail'd my steps to yonder yew!  
For him I wove, in Fancy's loom  
A texture of perennial bloom!  
For him, with joy th' assembled Nine,  
Their amplest wreath conspir'd to twine!  
Yet what alas, but idle praise,  
Rewards my sweetest minstrel's lays!

"Thus droop my sons, with scorn repaid,  
Listless amid the sombre shade!  
What though I raise the Muse's flame,  
With ardent hopes of deathless fame,  
Yet cold Neglect's severe controul,  
Chills the warm current of the soul!"

'And see, the silver slipper'd maid,  
Her robes of glossy verdure fade!  
See, in the widest anguish prest,  
To yon pale urn her heaving breast!  
Still Nature's hand, her streams around,  
Scatters with simple flowers the ground;  
But, mark'd by no poetic eye,  
Their hues in breathing incense die.

'Well may the faded virgin glow,  
With varied energies of woe.

Long has she deem'd her "triumphs" vain,  
 Though her own poet fram'd the strain,  
 Haply ev'n he may breathe e'er long  
 The spirit of despairing song,  
 And own, reclin'd his pensive head,  
 The "tears of Isis" justly shed.

*The Art of Eloquence. A Didactic Poem. Book the First. 4to.  
 2s. 6d. Dilly.*

WE are told, in an advertisement prefixed, 'It seldom happens that an anonymous writer can gain even a momentary attention from the public, to any representation which may respect himself or his motives for publishing: the author therefore of the following poem does not wish to detain his readers on a subject that cannot interest them in the slightest degree; but as it is possible that the little piece he submits with all diffidence to their inspection, may not be received with utter disregard, he begs leave to suggest to them a few observations, to introduce it the more readily to their notice.

'It has frequently occurred to the author, that, among the various subjects which come within the province of the Didactic Poem, there is no one perhaps better adapted to its genius, than the "Art of Eloquence." That however it has never been poetically treated:—And the author, amidst his frequent reflections on so singular a circumstance, had many a time conceived a general plan for the use of the didactic poet, before he entertained the most distant idea of assuming that character himself.

'The subject (he imagined) might be divided into Four Books. "The first book might consist of general precepts—the former part containing—a Delineation of Eloquence, as it appears among ruder Nations—in polished Society—in this Country—amidst its three great Provinces, the Bar, the Parliament, and the Pulpit: hence its three essentials deduced, Argument, Ornament, and Pathos. The latter part containing—a Survey of these Essentials—as forming an Oration, &c. &c. &c.

'The second Book might be confined to the Eloquence of the Bar—or—the Argumentative species of Oratory.

'The third Book to the Eloquence of the Senate—or—the Ornamental species.

'The fourth Book to the Eloquence of the Pulpit—or—the Pathetic Species.'

Such is the plan of the author; and, according to the success of the first Book now offered to the public, the suppression or publication of the others depend. How far he is entitled to encouragement, in the prosecution of his undertaking, the reader may form some idea from the introductory lines, which contain a general eulogium on eloquence. They

are



are neither the best nor worst in the performance, but will probably suffer less by transplantation than any other.

‘ Whilst Britain’s Genius bids the sister-arts  
In liberal homage to rejoice, the Muse  
Full oft deploring thy dishonour’d wreath,  
Fair Eloquence ! and emulous to raise  
Its sombre colours, from their mafs of shade,  
To ancient lustre ; pants to trace thy art  
(Congenial with her own) amid the scenes,  
Where orators of old with kindling voice  
Drew Virtue from its slumbers. Hence the charms  
That into music melodiz’d the speech ;  
Ennobled diction ; fir’d it with the flame  
Of patriotic freedom ; wak’d the soul  
To action ; and gave dignity to life !

‘ Spirit of Athens, over Albion breathe  
Charms not inferior ! for here flourish laws  
That foster free-born worth ! In union here  
(Erst visionary deem’d) the threefold form  
Of senate lives ; yet realiz’d alone  
By favour’d Britons ! Here religion beams  
Her genuine light ! From images like these  
Might rise the soul of Eloquence to heights  
Supernal, such as Rome nor Athens knew.’

The author seems to possess both judgment and learning.

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*Miscellanies upon various Subjects. By John Aubrey, Esq. F. R. S. A New Edition, with considerable Improvements. To which is prefixed, some Account of his Life, 8vo, 3s, in Boards. Ottridge,*

THE change of manners and opinions is so gradual, that it is sometimes necessary to step back a hundred years, to perceive in what we differ from our ancestors. At this time the belief of dreams, impulses, apparitions, &c. is scarcely to be found, even among the vulgar : in the last century, persons of the first rank in letters firmly trusted to the truth of every sort of superstitious delusion. It was with reason therefore, that we lately called credulity the native disease of the mind, when we had occasion to examine some striking effects of the force of imagination. Mr. Aubrey’s *Miscellanies*, which are now for the third time published, contain a considerable collection of omens, apparitions, dreams, impulses, &c. and furnish fresh instances of its great power at all times, and over minds the best cultivated. Mr. Aubrey himself was bred at Oxford, studied the law, and was early elected a member of the Royal Society ; so that we must suppose him master of a great part of the science at that time known ; and, from his letters, he seems to have been intimately acquainted with the first men of that period, But neither his learning, his philosophy, or the conversation

of his contemporaries, could open his eyes so as to discern the trifling nature of many of these stories, the connection of some of his narratives with natural causes, or the very great deductions, which are at all times necessary, on account of terror and superstition, of a guilty conscience, or a mind naturally weak. The sailor's cap was clearly carried off in a gale of wind, and the schoolboy's top was so certainly taken up by a whirlwind, that the story gives a description of the phenomenon, with almost philosophical precision: so true is the remark of Bacon, 'that imagination is next of kin to miracle-working faith.'

The account of the second-sight is more accurately detailed in this book than in any other. We shall only add to it, from our own observations, that those who now are supposed to possess this extraordinary faculty, and they are very few, are gloomy and melancholy, generally the victims of a disordered imagination. So far from valuing this gift of prophecy as an advantage, their life is burthensome, from the distressing ideas which continually arise. They still own, as Mr. Aubrey observes, that their art is to be taught; but they earnestly dissuade every one from attempting to learn it. This fact, while it precludes the suspicion of a voluntary imposition, seems to fix this state of mind among the diseases of the imagination. Their being often right in their predictions, is no proof of the reality of the faculty; for we well know, that confident pretenders never want proselytes. Since refinement has more generally extended, and social intercourse increased, these gloomy visionaries are almost forgotten.

It might perhaps be produced as an argument against all these fancies, that since a collector, so diligent as Mr. Aubrey, has not been able to compile a larger volume; since they are in general so vaguely and indecisively related; many produced by natural causes; and some, particularly the pranks played at Woodstock with Cromwell's commissioners, since discovered to be human contrivances; it might be alleged, with little farther examination, that the whole was to be attributed to similar causes. Better arguments indeed are not wanting; but we may safely leave the subject, already in its wane, to the philosophy, perhaps to the scepticism, of the present age. Either will be equally fatal to the folly and superstition, which can for a moment credit the influence of these preternatural phantoms.

## MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

### P O L I T I C A L.

*A Reply to the Answer to a 'Short Essay on the Modes of Defence,'*  
 &c. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Wilkie.

**W**E noticed the two former works, viz. the *Essay* and the *Answer*, in our last Number, and remarked, that the principal and most important positions of the essayist were unshaken.

*Shaken.* The Reply is acute, spirited, and severe: we doubt if it be not too personal, and would advise the noble author (we beg pardon if we are mistaken) to curb the exuberance of his indignation, lest a general question should sink into a personal dispute. The replier holds fast his former advantages, is fully master of his own ground, and annoys his antagonist with so much vigour and address, that it will be no easy task to continue the contest. We need not enlarge on the particular merits of the dispute, since that is to be decided by much abler reviewers. If we are right in our conjectures, the duke's present antagonist fights with the pen as successfully as he has done with the sword.

*Impartial Reflections upon the Question, for equalizing the Duties; upon the Trade, between Great Britain and Ireland. By the Right Hon. Lord Mountmorres. 8vo. 2s. Almon.*

As lord Mountmorres is not undistinguished for abilities in the legislature of his own country, it affords us pleasure to find that he exerts them on the present important occasion. His lordship's reflections discover a liberality worthy of his rank; and at the same time he urges, by a just representation of the commercial laws now existing between Great Britain and Ireland, the expediency of granting that kingdom the proposed equality of trade. In support of his argument, lord Mountmorres, in an appendix, produces, from Scobell's Statutes, an act passed during the time of the Commonwealth in 1651, by which the privileges of the navigation-law were expressly extended to Ireland.

*Manufactures improper Subjects of Taxation. 8vo. 1s. Phillips.*

Though it must be admitted that great caution is always necessary in taxing manufactures, we are not thence to conclude, that works of industry ought never to be rendered objects of taxation. This indeed seems to be the opinion of the author of the present pamphlet. But he appears to found his sentiments upon the idea, that by laying a tax on manufactures, they would necessarily be cramped or annihilated. Should the latter of these effects ensue, the tax would doubtless be extremely pernicious; but so far from this being unavoidable, even the former of the supposed effects might, and ought to be avoided, by a taxation prudently imposed.

To supply the exigencies of government, without hurting the manufactures, the author proposes a tax which would affect all ranks of people in proportion to their expenditure. The tax alluded to, is upon the real rents of lands and houses, to be paid by the tenant or occupier. But if this should not be deemed expedient, he thinks that even the most common necessities of life, flour and meat, ought to be taxed in preference to manufactures. But would not such an impost ultimately

mately affect those objects, which the author is so anxious to exclude from the effects of taxation?

*The Crisis; or immediate Concernments of the British Empire.*  
8vo. 1s. 6d. Dilly.

This young author (for such he acknowledges himself to be) takes an adventurous flight into the regions of politics, where he makes a variety of observations, not only relative to the affairs of Great Britain, but of other countries. Though not defective in point of judgment, he appears to have been much assisted in this excursion by a buoyant imagination. For what reason he has entitled this production *The Crisis*, we know not, unless the name alludes to the experiment he has made of his literary abilities, in which we are glad to find him so successful.

*Eironiclastes; or, A Cloud of Facts against 'A Gleam of Comfort.'*  
8vo. 2s. Shepperson and Reynolds.

The pamphlet to which this is a reply, was an ironical attack on the members of the present administration, against whose characters, as well as public conduct, the author directed his ridicule. The writer of the production before us, at the same time that he refutes many of the assertions in '*A Gleam of Comfort*,' vindicates the characters of the ministers, and displays in a light not very favourable, those of their principal opponents. Amongst those we are not surprised to find some marked with the features of republicanism; but that almost any British subject, much more a person high in office, should now be represented as a Jacobite, excites in us a suspicion that the author is not divested of prejudice.

*The Danger of violent Innovations in the State exemplified from the Reigns of the two first Stuarts, in a Sermon preached at Canterbury, Janury 31, 1785. By George Berkeley, D. L.* 8vo. 6d. Johnson.

The subject of this sermon is taken from Prov. xx. 21. 'My son, -fear thou the Lord and the king, and meddle not with them that are given to change.' The preacher divides his text into two heads; showing, first, that the civil government is the ordinance of God; and secondly, pointing out the danger and the sin of making violent innovations in any constitution of government. With the wisdom of the politician he unites the precepts of the divine; and recommends it to all true patriots, as a public duty, that they would apply themselves to personal reformation.

*Plain Facts, submitted to the Common Sense of the People of England.* 8vo. 1s. Jarvis.

This author is a vehement apologist for the last administration, which he particularly vindicates with respect to three transactions, namely, the coalition, the receipt-tax, and Mr. Fox's

Fox's East India bill. So far as affirmation can influence the public opinion, he seems to be well qualified for the office of a political advocate, or rather indeed of a partizan; for when his purpose requires plain facts, if they are not to be found, he can make them. On this principle he observes, at setting out, 'It is now become a generally acknowledged fact, that the Portland administration, as it is commonly termed, was suffered to take place at the time, with a view only to lay hold of some favourable occasion, when its final overthrow might be more effectually accomplished.' It is the misfortune of unfounded assertions, that they generally hurt the cause which they are intended to serve.

*Discursary Thoughts on the late Acts of Parliament, viz. Medicine, Horse, Window, Post, Plate, &c. By Francis Spilbury. No Publisher's Name, or Price.*

Mr. Spilbury, whose interest excites him to defend the utility of advertised medicines, inveighs with great warmth against the act of parliament for granting a duty on the venders of those commodities. So far Mr. Spilbury acts upon obvious, and perhaps excusable principles; but having appeared as a champion against the ministry in one point, this redoubtable opponent belabours them with the *pestle* for several other parts of their conduct; such as the commutation-act, the post-act, the plate-act, &c. And all this in open defiance of the old adage, *Ne Sutor ultra crepidam*.

*General Remarks on the British Fisheries. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Murray.*

The inattention of the legislature to the improvement of the British fisheries is one of the most surprising, as well as most blameable circumstances respecting the public œconomy. Who can think, without astonishment, that an insular nation, on the coasts of which may be found so great a variety of fish, should yet be supplied with this article of diet almost entirely by foreigners? The author of the present pamphlet shews, by an abstract taken from the custom-house-books, that the value of fish brought by the Dutch into the port of London, from February 3, 1783, to November 1, 1784, amounted to two hundred and seventy thousand five hundred and eighteen pounds. Many are the pernicious effects resulting from the toleration of this practice: for not only a great sum of money is drawn out of the kingdom every year, but the price of fish is kept up in the metropolis, at the pleasure of those who now monopolize the trade; and in the northern and western islands, particularly, numbers of the inhabitants, who, by employing themselves in the fisheries, might be enabled to live comfortably, and contribute to the good of the public, are at present pining under all the miseries of want and oppression. But to render the fisheries of this country flourishing, it is not sufficient that the inhabitants of the coasts and islands be excited to this useful species of industry: the best manner of curing  
the

the fish must be carefully practised; and even the quality of the salt used for this purpose ought likewise to be an object of consideration. The author of the pamphlet before us throws out several useful hints with respect to the plan which should be pursued in the improvement of the fisheries; and as this important subject is soon to engage the deliberation of parliament, we hope that such measures will be adopted, as may ensure success to a branch of commerce, not only profitable to individuals, but advantageous to the nation in general, and highly conducive likewise to the support of our maritime power.

## P O E T R Y.

*The Prospect; or, Re-union of Britain and America: a Poem.*  
4to. 1s. 6d. Bew.

We find that this poem is written by an American officer; and if his merits as a writer are not very conspicuous, as a well-wisher to both nations he is entitled to our respect and approbation. Some of his more violent countrymen however will not, in all probability, thoroughly approve of several invectives contained in it against their royal allies; such, for instance, as in the following passage, where we are told that a second Pitt,

— ‘ Shall frame the great, the bless’d design  
Again Britannia’s sever’d sons to join :  
Stern fate propitious on his wish shall smile,  
And crown with fair success his gen’ious toil.  
Then haughty France shall rue the fatal hour,  
When first, misled by boundless lust of pow’r,  
To cruth fair Albion all her arts were tried,  
To tear the western empire from her side :  
Spain, too, shall curse the part her monarch took,  
And every tyrant from his throne be shook.’

*The Hastingsiad; an Heroic Poem. In Three Cantos.* 4to. 1s. 6d.  
Debrett.

Of these three cantos, the first only makes its appearance. It is a satirical performance, of which governor Hastings and his lady are the principal objects. Though we do not much approve publications of this kind, we cannot deny but the author’s abilities seem much superior to many of our political bards.

*Carmen in honorem Georgii Saville, Baronetti, &c. Austere*  
*Jobanne Wright.* 4to. 1s. 6d. White.

‘ Ergo Savilli blandula luridâ  
Clauduntur umbrâ lumina ? cui rapax  
Pepercit Orcus ? mors profanam  
*Unde manum abstinuiste gaudet ?*

Of the words marked in Italics we shall only observe, that ‘ ergo,’ though used by classical writers as an angry interrogative,

tive, is here totally out of its place. That the infantine epithet, connected with 'lumina,' would be descriptive of a Lesbia lamenting her dead sparrow; or a boarding-school miss her drooping goldfinch; but sounds ridiculous, when applied to the sensible and manly Saville.—That 'unde' is a poor substitute for à quo, and that 'gaudet' is nothing to the purpose. From these opening lines, the reader may form a judgment of the whole—*ex pede Herculem*.

*The Veteran, a Poem.* 4to. 1s. 6d. Debrett.

An old soldier is here introduced, relating to a friend his eventful history during the space of forty years, that he was

'doom'd to share

The rudest perils and fatigues of war.  
Of humble birth, but of right honest kin,  
He aim'd in youth a warrior's praise to win,  
And bore contented with the soldier's name,  
His scanty pittance and contracted fame:  
Till now, at length, in life's extremest stage,  
Grown grey in arms, and chill'd with wintry age,  
By wounds retarded, and with want oppress'd,  
He sought to spend his latter days in rest;  
Such rest indeed as, to his anxious vows,  
The gallant soldier's rigid lot allows;  
Still in the guise of sleepless war to guard  
The sloping rampart, and the foe retard.'

The lines are in general spirited and easy; and the author, if not a soldier himself, appears well acquainted with military affairs. Some inaccuracies, and bad lines, like the following, frequently occur.

'No sp'rit so meek, that while the tumult *flam'd*  
Around, could view it listless and *be-calm'd*.'

On the whole, it is a pleasing performance.

*The Dog's Monitor, a Satirical Poem.* By Major Henry Waller. 4to. 2s. Kearsley.

The story here related is the same we gave an account of in our last Volume, page 308, somewhat altered, and increased to double its size, by additional reflections and satirical remarks interwoven with it: several of which, though not very deep nor pointed, are lively and amusing. A Latin Proemium, in monkish rhyme, is annexed, in which defiance is hurled to some monthly Journalists, who treated the major's last publication, as he apprehends, with improper severity. It contains some strokes of humour, but will hardly stand the test of grammatical criticism.

*A Whimsical Rhapsody on Taxes and Balloons.* 8vo. 3d. Debrett.

The author has given the character of this fugitive sheet in the title.—It is whimsical and a rhapsody; but as much is said about

about Mr. Pitt as of taxes and balloons. The author might also add, that he is no more an admirer of the minister than of the more particular subjects of the poem. There is however some shrewdness occasionally in the remarks, though we cannot boast of the powers of our new ally, in opposition to balloons. We shall select a short specimen.

'And what's the end of all this pompous stuff,  
Which philosophic fools so idly puff?  
Say what advantage can it bring mankind?  
Can it assist the lame, the sick, the blind?  
Oh! no! 'tis children's play; the school-boy's kite  
Can soar as well, tho' not so great a height.  
We know the principle, and 'twere much better  
T' assist the poor, the pris'ner to unfetter  
With our spare wealth, than thus amuse the nation  
With useless vanity and vain vexation.'

## N O V E L S.

*The History of Sir Henry Clarendon.* 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. Baldwin.

A hero and a heroine, each endowed with every perfection, must see each other by chance, and become instantly enamoured. They must labour through two or three volumes; and, if no churlish father, or ambitious aunt, is in the way, they must have a reasonable quantity of doubt and suspicion, infused by false friends. The lady too, may be forced away by a disappointed lover, and rescued miraculously. At last, one or other must be near death, either by accident or premeditated violence, and may recover or not, according to the disposition of the author. This is the skeleton of a modern novel: sentiments, character, or language, are of little consequence; and such is the flimsy texture of *sir Henry Clarendon*, with a very scanty share of merit in these necessary additions.

*The Conquests of the Heart. A Novel. By a Young Lady.* 3 Vols. 12mo. 9s. Baldwin.

This young lady endeavours to assist 'the cause of morality and virtue' with success. The tale indeed is not very new or interesting; though it be a little superior to the common class. The character of *miss Adams* is a correct outline; but rather too much like that of *madame Duval*, and we think she might have been employed a little more in deranging the designs of the heroine. The old servant of *Mr. Denier*, and his little story, are truly pathetic; and the letter from *Diana D'Avila*, is written with tenderness, and a just acquaintance with the human heart: we hope, in the scenes of distress, our fair author has never copied from her own feelings. We wish to cherish this tender bud; for we guess that it may expand with a more varied foliage, and more vivid colours, when time shall have advanced it to greater maturity.

*The*



*The Vale of Glendor; or the Memoirs of Emily Westbrook.* 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. Noble.

This is a pleasing little history; but with few striking excellencies. It is 'a simple tale, in simple guise,' and contains a very useful lesson. Let no ambitious fair-one, who wishes to dazzle the Ring with her equipage, or the circle with her diamonds, sacrifice to this childish splendour a real attachment. The affections may be, by this means, for a time concealed; but they will return with double fervour. If it should happen, that the weak attractions for a moment prevail, let her, like Emily, be wise in time, and she will be happy. But, on the other hand, this is no argument to support the propriety of a romantic attachment, in opposition to a prudent attention to futurity. The contest is between inclination, supported by reason, and a title; not between the gay lively fortune-hunter, recommended only by the fancy, and the more respectable choice of an anxious parent.

## MISCELLANEOUS.

*Consilia; or Thoughts upon several Subjects.* Small 8vo. 2s. 6d. Cadell.

The author informs us, that 'he would have great reason to lament his labour, if he could for a moment suspect, that they, viz. the remarks, will be perused with greater attention to the ability of the performance, than to the plain, undisguised advice it contains. We have looked therefore rather at the substance than the form; and where we have approved his sentiments (and we have scarcely ever had reason to disapprove of them) we have only regretted that his observations have not been more extensive. The author's benevolence is indeed considerable: his 'moral remarks on life at large, and the conduct requisite to make, that life happy,' deserve the attention of the younger part of mankind. But we may be allowed to hint, that they would probably be more acceptable to those for whom they are intended, if the author had not been so sparing of ornament. The beauty of virtue is intrinsic; and cannot be known till she is attained. It is the business of the moralist, therefore, to make the attainment easy and agreeable.

*A Treatise on the Principles of Hair-dressing.* By William Barker, Hair-dresser. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Bew.

Our 'man of taste', who seems to have a 'genius for style,' has really collected some valuable and useful observations, on a subject apparently trifling. The deformities of modern hair-dressing are indeed numerous; and we fear that no approaches to fashion can be made consistent with true beauty. Yet so great is the power, so enchanting the magic of a beautiful woman, that nothing can deform or disguise her. The folly

of to-day may be succeeded by one not quite so old, and yet her influence is unremitting. Our author seems calculated to improve his art; for, with all his attention to portraits and statues, he has even cultivated his taste in hair-dressing, from the precepts of the immortal Shakspeare: such is the power of genius, that it can extract information from every source. While this philosophical hair-dresser and his system remains, let no unhallowed artist presume to wield his comb, or shake his powder puff! May his arms be as sacred as those of Orlando!

As a specimen of his 'taste' and 'style,' we shall select the following short passage.

'The case is reversed when we consider the lovely Hebe of eighteen, whom nature is luxuriantly labouring to crown with a profusion of gifts, such as the animated cheek dimpled with smiles, the sparkling eye beaming with joy,—the residence of a million of charms; and the neck with that highest finish, the hair; then the chaste hand of taste, guided by judgment, should be employed to check its wildness, and conduct with elegance each waving lock, into that maze of irregular charms it is so prompt of itself to form, when inclined to curl.—To guide, not alter Nature, is the business of a hair-dresser.'

*The Complete Constable, By John Paul, Esq. 12mo. rs. 6d. Fielding.*

This seems a pretty accurate account of the *present* office of constable, from the best authorities. The *constable*, says our compiler, is supposed to be 'the stability of the place, or the strong man of the division.' But this etymology is probably erroneous: *Conus stabuli*, the usual one, is no less exceptionable; for the office was originally considerable, and conferred on the highest rank. Perhaps *comes stabilis* may be the more probable derivation, as the constable, at some periods, rather resembled a civil officer, and this title may have been given in contradistinction to the military chief, whose office was less confined. We still retain the title in the constable of the Tower, Dover Castle, and some other places: the high and petty constable, our author's chief objects, are inconsiderable branches of this ancient dignity.

*An Account of the Scotch Society at Norwich. The Second Edition. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Murray.*

We have already given an account of the institution of this Society\*, which reflects no small honour on the humanity of its members, and particularly Dr. Murray, to which it is chiefly indebted for its existence. To an account of the Society, and the several addresses of the gentlemen above mentioned, are added, in the present edition, the songs which were sung at a general meeting of this laudable institution last year.

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\* Critical Review for April, 1784.

*An authentic Narrative of the Treatment of the English who were taken Prisoners on the Reduction of Bednore, by Tippoo Saib. By Captain Henry Oakes. 8vo. 2s. Kearsley.*

This Narrative is published from a manuscript written by captain Oakes, adjutant-general to the army under the command of general Mathews. It states the hardships and cruelties which our people suffered; but makes no mention of the cause which could have excited Tippoo Saib to such barbarity. It appears however, by the account of lieutenant Sheene, of the first battalion of seapoys, printed in an Appendix to the Narrative, that Tippoo Saib had been inflamed with resentment for cruelties committed by the English troops; and that, in the transactions which followed the reduction of Bednore, he acted upon the principle of retaliation.

*Thoughts on executive Justice, with Respect to our Criminal Laws, particularly on the Circuits. Small 8vo. 2s, 6d. Doddsley.*

The English penal law has been accused of severity, and, like that of Draco, said to be written in blood. It will appear astonishing therefore, while every plea has been allowed in mitigation of the penalties which the law has ordained for different offences, to observe an advocate contending for the strictest execution of them. But we think our very intelligent author has said enough to induce us again to examine the question, and to doubt whether pardon is not sometimes the greatest cruelty: he would be severe, 'only to be kind.' The frequency of executions, and the numerous victims so frequently offered to the shrine of justice, give the most exquisite pain to the feelings of humanity. Would you then increase this unhappy crowd, erect additional gibbets, and recruit your formidable band of executioners? This is not our author's intention; the slackness of justice is, he thinks, an encouragement to vice; and frequent reprieves are found only to have hardened the offenders. It is certainly an indisputable fact, that where the guilty never escape, crimes are comparatively uncommon.

We are at least convinced that our present mode is unfavourable to public security; and that the subordinate punishments are the nurseries of future, often of more flagitious, crimes. Consequently our author's plan deserves attention: but perhaps it should not be revived without a proper notice; without a public denunciation of justice against every capital offender; without a solemn warning of impending punishment, and of the necessity of reformation.

This essay is written, a few passages only excepted, with propriety, and often with elegance. But we are surprised that an author, who could write so well, should talk of 'oustring offenders of their clergy.' The Royal Society once endeavoured to alter the preterperfect of *read to redde*, but without success;

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our author constantly writes 'red.' These are innovations which we cannot approve, because no inconvenience or obscurity can easily arise from the usual spelling.

*The Complete Wall-tree Pruner, &c. By John Abercrombie. 12mo. 3s. Bladon.*

The pruning wall-trees is an art in which common gardeners are less skilful than in the other duties of their employment. Mr. Abercrombie's great experience enables him to afford instruction on this subject; and the rules which he delivers must therefore prove useful.

*The Propagation and Botanical Arrangements of Plants and Trees. By John Abercrombie. 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. in Boards. Debrett.*

In this treatise Mr. Abercrombie delivers not only the theory and principles of this department of gardening, but the commonly received practice. In general, however, his observations are too trite to be interesting; and he is often not sufficiently explicit to afford satisfactory information. To this we may add, that the botanical arrangements are imperfect; and that the method according to which he has divided agricultural plants, favours more of affectation than of utility.

*A new Vocabulary of the most difficult Words in the English Language. By William Fry. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Sold by the Author.*

Mr. Fry, not content with giving words, which are only what we ought to expect in a vocabulary, has swelled his work with common phrases from the Latin and French, translated into English, and with apophthegms ancient and modern. Nor is this all: for we also find in the Vocabulary, a new method of calculating the sun's diameter. We can only say, that the man who should desire greater variety of materials in a Vocabulary, would be very unreasonable.

*Bannister's Reports. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Fielding.*

This pamphlet is otherwise entitled, 'A Series of Adjudications before Lord Chief Justice Jöker, in his Majesty's High Court of Wit, Humour, and Fun.' Did any such court exist in the kingdom, this author would certainly be cashiered as one of the greatest dunces that had ever appeared before it. He has no pretensions to any connection with the court of Momus.

## C O R R E S P O N D E N C E.

*A Genevan* may read the article he mentions in our Review for October, 1784.

The Critical Reviewers are obliged to A. B. for his Letter of April 2.

The Request of X. Y. Z. is under consideration.



# T H E CRITICAL REVIEW.

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For M A Y, 1785.

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*Poems upon several Occasions, English, Italian, and Latin, with Translations, by John Milton. With Notes critical and explanatory, and other Illustrations, by Thomas Warton, Fellow of Trinity College, and late Professor of Poetry at Oxford. 8vo, 8s. in Boards. Doddsley.*

**M**R. Warton, in this edition, has raised a durable monument, on which his name will appear, though in a different department; with a splendor little inferior to Milton's. The text is carefully corrected, and the notes are very valuable. Milton is now illustrated by those authors to whom he was greatly indebted; for, in his early years, chivalry and romance were equally familiar to his mind with the purest models of Greece and Rome; and his commentator should not be less conversant with Gothic than with classical knowledge. The poet himself has felt all the virulence of political opposition; and, in turn, has been exalted by his party: we think it is, at last, time that he should rest on his own merits; and may still hope, that we have lately seen the last shaft of this kind of criticism.

‘In such proscriptive abhorrence was Milton held, a man who had been so eminently obnoxious to the interests of the church and the regal family now newly restored to their injured rights, that when an opportunity was offered, whatever might serve in any kind or degree to perpetuate his name or memory, would naturally be treated with contempt: and it is therefore probable, however unjustifiable and uncharitable, that his will was never allowed the privilege of admittance into a public ecclesiastical repository, or, if admitted, that it was easily suffered to be suppressed. Comus and the Paradise Lost could not on this occasion apologise for the defender of the king's murder. The violence of political prejudice, exulting in the recent recovery of the power of retaliation, was not to be softened by the fascinations of fancy. But the jealous partizans of the Restoration little suspected that an age would arrive, in which their old antagonist would again triumph: that this turbulent

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republican, whom they had so confidently condemned to disgrace and oblivion, would at length become the idol of universal veneration; that the minutest occurrences of his life would be collected with a fond enthusiasm; that his monument would be reared amid the shrines of monarchs; and that his works would be ranked among the highest honours of his country.'

These smaller poems were, like the *Paradise Lost*, at first neglected; and, when the epic poem shone with its brightest lustre, they seem to have been obscured. In a period of seventy years, they are not once mentioned by any author, except in some papers of archbishop Sancroft, preserved at Oxford; and, at this time, their beauties and faults are very little known. In many respects they are indeed faulty; but the expressive energy, the poetic fire, '*divinæ particula auræ*,' are eminently conspicuous, and not unworthy of the author of *Paradise Lost*. Dr. J. Warton observes, that if he might venture to place Milton's works according to their degrees of poetic excellence, it should be perhaps in the following order; *PARADISE LOST*, *COMUS*, *SAMSON AGONISTES*, *LYCIDAS*, *L'ALLEGRO*, and *IL PENSEROSO*. This arrangement is not however unexceptionable: *Lycidas* has indeed more striking beauties than the subsequent poems; but it is disgraced with greater faults. Elegy is strictly the complaining of a mourner; but it is also applied to every lamentation, every tale of woe; and from this variety arises the great difference of judgment on writings of this class. As the language of a heart distressed, it avoids all affected ornaments and tortured phrases; its complaints are seldom warm and passionate, for the violence of grief must be softened into a mellow tenderness before it can admit of composition. The more indifferent person, who grieves by method, and complains by rule, must be tried by very different laws. We were once arraigned, for Reviewers are sometimes reviewed, of want of feeling, when we objected to the usual forms of elegy, and it has induced us to make this necessary distinction. Dr. Johnson too, in his remarks on *Lycidas*, by not observing this obvious difference, has objected to it without a sufficient foundation. It seems more probable that this event, viz. the death of Mr. King, was a blow by which every one, connected with his college, tried his strength; and we have no great foundation for supposing that *Lycidas* was dictated by any peculiar affection, or severe distress: the collection, in which it was first published, contains thirty-five poems on the same subject, and Milton's is the last. It is a wonderful instance of genius, with all its attendant inequalities. But we have almost forgotten that our object is the commentary, rather than the poems.

The instances in which Mr. Warton has corrected the text are numerous. We shall select one note of this kind, as a general specimen.

“ And let some strange mysterious dream  
Wave at his wings in airy stream  
Of lively portraiture display'd,  
Softly on my eye-lids laid.”

‘I do not exactly understand the whole of the context. Is the dream to wave at Sleep’s wings? Doctor Newton will have *wave* to be a verb neuter: and very justly, as the passage now stands. But let us strike out *at*, and make *wave* active.

“ — Let some strange mysterious dream  
Wave his wings, in airy stream,” &c.

“ Let some fantastic *Dream* put the wings of *Sleep* in motion, which shall be *displayed*, or expanded, in an *airy* or soft *stream* of visionary imagery, gently falling or settling on my eyelids.” Or, *his* may refer to *Dream*, and not to *Sleep*, with much the same sense. In the mean time, supposing *lively* adverbial, as was now common, *displayed* will connect with *pourtraiture*, that is, “ *pourtraiture* lively displayed,” with this sense, “ wave his wings, in an airy stream of rich pictures so strongly displayed in vision as to resemble real life.” Or, if *lively* remain as an adjective, much in the same sense, *displayed* will signify *displaying* itself. On the whole, we must not here seek for precise meanings of parts, but acquiesce in a general idea resulting from the whole, which I think is sufficiently seen. The expression *on my eye-lids laid*, is from Shakespeare, *Mid. N. Dr.* A. ii. S. i.

‘The juice of it “on sleeping eye-lids laid.”

“In the same strain, Fletcher in the *Faithful Shepherdess*, A. ii. S. i. vol. iii. p. 146.

“ — Sweetest slumbers  
And soft silence, fall in numbers  
On your eye-lids,”

And in the tragedy of *Valentinian*, in an address to *Sleep*. A. 5. S. ii. vol. iv. p. 353.

“ On this afflicted prince fall like a cloud  
In gentle showers.” —

Nor must I forget an exquisite passage in *Parad. Lost*, b. 12. 614.

“ — The timely dew of sleep  
Now falling with soft slumbrous weight, inclines  
Our eye-lids.” —

Where the language would insensibly lull us asleep, did not the imagery keep us awake. But for wildness, and perhaps force,

of imagery, in expressing the approach of sleep, Shakespeare exceeds all. *Midf. N. Dr. A. iii. S. ii.*

“Till o’er their brows death-counterfeiting sleep  
With leaden legs and batty wings doth creep.”

We have indeed chosen this note, to suggest an emendation which seems to restore order and clearness to the text.

“And let some strange mysterious dream  
Wave at his wings an airy stream  
Of lively portraiture display’d,  
Softly on my eye-lids laid.”

We were somewhat surprised at the note on the following line of *Lycidas*:

“Bring the rather primrose that *fo’faken* dies.”

Mr. Warton seems unwilling to understand this line, or that passage from Shakespeare, from whom it was certainly borrowed. The edition in 1638 reads ‘*unwedded*,’ and evidently betrays the origin of the image in the *Winter’s Tale*. Shakespeare was caught by the appearance of the pale colour, and its fanciful coincidence with ‘the malady most incident to maids,’ consequently supposed the primrose to die unmarried. Milton followed the image, but forgot, or did not choose to give the reason. There is another oversight, in the interpretation of Shakespeare, in the following lines.

“There is an art which in their *pietness* shares  
With great creating nature.”

That is, says Mr. Warton, ‘there is an art which can produce flowers with as great a variety of colours as nature herself.’ In fact, *Perdita* is expressing some dislike to *pie’d* gilliflowers, because she supposes the variety of colour owing to art, while she is warm in her praises of nature. But we will not dwell on errors when there are so many excellencies to deserve our notice; we shall only remark farther, that Mr. Warton confounds the mummers with the wassailers. They both indeed are found in the West; but the mummers are a more harmless species of dramatic performers, and not guilty of those irregularities which sometimes distinguish the wassailers. The names are also confined to different countries. There are other errors, some in the language, and others in the interpretation; but they are generally slight, and sometimes seem to arise from haste.

In some instances Mr. Warton seems at a loss. In the following line of *Lycidas*,

“He touched the tender flocks of various quills.”

Mr.



Mr. Warton's note relates only to 'stops,' and he has not informed us, that the 'quills' mean the seven unequal reeds of the ancient Syringa. Again, in Comus, the editor observes, 'that it is not ascertained whether Milton's hæmqny, the preservative against enchantments, was a real or poetical plant.' *Hemion* is a name applied to two different European plants, viz. the *Hemion* of Theophrastus, the asplenium hemionitis of Linnæus, resembling the harts-tongue, frequently called spleen-wort. The other is the asplenium ceterach of Linnæus, more commonly called spleen-wort. These plants are often confounded, but distinguished by the earliest Greek writers. They are supposed to be expectorants, but their power against enchantments we have found no foundation for, though we are ashamed to own, that we have spent some time among rubbish of this kind to ascertain it. Perhaps this effect is traditional, and has not yet reached systems, or is found in those which we have not procured.

The notes are of two kinds, historical and explanatory. The principal historical note relates to Ludlow Castle, the scene of Comus, and the earl of Bridgewater's family the principal actors of it.

'Thomas Churchyard, in a poem called the Worthines of Wales, printed in 1587, has a chapter entitled "The Castle of Ludloe." In one of the state-apartments, he mentions a superb escocheon in stone of the arms of prince Arthur; and an empalement of St. Andrew's cross with prince Arthur's arms, painted in the windows of the hall. And in the hall and chambers, he says, there was a variety of rich workmanship, suitable to so magnificent a castle. In it is a chapel, he adds, "most trim and costly, so bravely wrought, so fayre and finely framed, &c." About the walls of this chapel, were sumptuously painted "a great device, a worke most riche and rare," the arms of many kings of England, and of the lords of the castle, from sir Walter Lacie the first lord, &c. "The armes of al these afore spoken of, are gallantly and cunningly set out in that chapell.—Now is to be rehearsed, that sir Harry Sidney being lord president buylt twelye roomes in the sayd castle, which goodly buildings doth shewe a great beautie to the same. He made also a goodly wardrobe underneath the new parlor and repayred an old tower called Mortymer's Tower, to keepe the auncient recordes in the same: and he repayred a fayre rounge under the court-house,—and made a great wall about the wood yard, and built a most braue conduit within the inner court: And all the newe buildings over the gate, sir Harry Sidney, in his dayes and government there, made and set out, to the honour of the queene, and the glorie of the castle. There are, in a goodly or stately place, set out my lord earl of Warwick's arms, the earl of Darbie, the earl of

Worcester, the earl of Pembroke, and sir Harry Sidney's armes in like manner; al these stand on the left side of the [great] chamber. On the other side, are the armes of Northwales and Southwales, two red lyons and two golden lyons [for] prince Arthur. At the end of the dyning chamber, there is a pretty device, how the hedge-hog broke his chayne, and came from Ireland to Ludloe. There is in the hall a great grate of iron, [a portcullis] of a huge height." fol. 79. In the hall, or one of the great chambers, Comus was acted. We are told by David Powell, the Welch historian, that sir Henry Sidney, knight, made Iord president of Wales, in 1564, "repaired the castle of Ludlowe, which is the cheefest house within the Marches, being in great decaie, as the chapel, the court-house, and a faire fountaine, &c. Also he erected diuers new buildings within the said castell, &c." Hist. of Cambria, edit. 1580. p. 401. 4to.'

At present these splendid apartments, this scene of gaiety and gallantry, enlivened by Milton's Muse in its early strength, are desolate. If the ruin were the effect of time, we should yield without a murmur to the general destroyer; but the desolation is anticipated by inattention. If materials are wanted for any trifling purpose, the castle is applied to; but, even within these few years, the hall, in which Comus was first performed, remained entire. Shakspeare and Milton have lost many monuments of remembrance in our times; and, horrible to relate! they have been destroyed by their own countrymen, to whom the poets do so much honour.

Mr. Reed informed us of the probable origin of Comus, by the discovery of a play, in which the general story and particular incidents are the same. It was written by George Peele, and intitled, *The Old Wife's Tale*; from an artificial mode of introduction, at those times not uncommon. It is always pleasing to trace an idea from the bud, through its progressive expansions, till it delights us with the richness of its foliage, or the splendour of its flowers; nor is the borrower, who rises above a copyist, disgraced by the examination. Mr. Warton has therefore obliged his readers, and added a leaf to the wreath of Milton, by some account of this old play. We shall insert a short specimen.

' Among the many feats of magic in this play, a bride newly married gains a marriage portion by dipping a pitcher into a well. As she dips, there is a voice:

" Faire maiden, white and red,  
Combe me smoothe, and stroke my head,  
And thou shalt haue some cockell bread!  
Gently dippe, but not too deepe,  
For feare thou make the goulden beard to weepe!

" Faire

" Faire maiden, white and redde,  
Combe me smooth, and stroke my head ;  
And euery haire a sheaue shall be,  
And euery sheaue a goulden tree !"

With this stage-direction, " A head comes up full of gold ; she combs it into her lap."

In the notes on the *Allegro* and *Penferoso*, our commentator has pointed out Burton, who, in the *Anatomic of Melancholy*, was the predecessor of Milton. Many marks of resemblance occur in the versification and the images, but, as usual, our author soars with a bolder wing ; and, though he can scarcely give greater variety to the subject, yet he describes the temper and the employments of the melancholy man, in a style frequently original. After quoting some of the introductory verses, Mr. Warton observes,

' As to the very elaborate work to which these visionary verses are no unsuitable introduction, the writer's variety of learning, his quotation from scarce and curious books, his pedantry sparkling with rude wit and shapeless elegance, miscellaneous matter, intermixture of agreeable tales and illustrations, and perhaps, above all, the singularities of his feelings, clothed in an uncommon quaintness of style, have contributed to render it, even to modern readers, a valuable repository of amusement and information.'

But Milton seems to have been more indebted to Burton than we at first suspect. The elder poet confines himself to melancholy, though, as he describes the different kinds of it, he comes very near to Milton's cheerfulness. Dr. Johnson has properly remarked that, ' no mirth can be found in his melancholy ; but I am afraid that I meet with some melancholy in his mirth.' Even Mr. Warton owns, that Milton's is the dignity of mirth : his cheerfulness is the cheerfulness of gravity. Perhaps his *Allegro* is distant both from mirth and cheerfulness ; he may be more properly styled serene, or of a disposition to be pleased, rather than actually merry, and the description scarcely differs from that of the *PLEASING MELANCHOLY* of Burton.

When we contemplate the pensive philosophic cast of Milton's mind, and at the same time reflect on the brilliancy of his imagination, and the force of his conceptions : when we see these seemingly discordant powers so temper the whole, and prevent either from bearing an improper sway, we regret the circumstances which confined him to obscurity, almost to poverty ; which exposed the different parts of *Paradise Lost* to the mercy of every occasional visitant, of every idle wanderer. Besides we may add, with Mr. Warton, that

'No man was ever so disqualified to turn puritan as Milton. In this and the preceding poem, he professes himself to be highly pleased with the choral church-music, with Gothic cloysters, the painted windows and vaulted ile of a venerable cathedral, with tilts and tournaments, and with masques and pageantries. What very repugnant and unpoetical principles did he afterwards adopt! He helped to subvert monarchy, to destroy subordination, and to level all distinctions of rank. But this scheme was totally inconsistent with the splendours of society, with throngs of knights and barons bold, with store of ladies, and high triumphs, which belonged to a court. Pomp, and feast, and revelry, the shew of Hymen, with mask and antique pageantry, were among the state and trappings of nobility, which he detested as an advocate for republicanism. His system of worship, which renounced all outward solemnity, all that had ever any connection with popery, tended to overthrow the studious cloysters pale, and the high embowed roof; to remove the storied windows richly dight, and to silence the pealing organ and the full-voiced quire. The delights arising from these objects were to be sacrificed to the cold and philosophical spirit of Calvinism, which furnished no pleasures to the imagination.'

Of the explanatory notes, that on spirits, in page 76, is very instructive; but it is too long for our insertion. That on 'storied windows,' abounds with such illustration, as we have never yet received from the commentators on Milton. Those on 'gardens,' and 'Cyprus,' seem also to be valuable; but we can at present select no more. Indeed the difficulty has been greater to determine on the choice, than to find observations worthy of insertion.

When Mr. Warton becomes the commentator and defender of his author, his remarks are extremely judicious. Those on Lycidas and Comus deserve particular attention. Even where they fail in their object, they evince the commentator's ingenuity and address. On the whole, we think the present edition of Milton very valuable, and hope that the editor will extend his cares, at least to Samson Agonistes, and the Paradise Regained. Its milder beauties are less obtrusive than the splendid ones of Paradise Lost; but still it possesses beauties which the world have hitherto overlooked, and which Mr. Warton is well qualified to point out and to illustrate.

[To be continued.]

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*Arctic Zoology. (Concluded, from p. 249.)*

MR. Pennant's merits and defects, as a natural historian, are well known: we ought not to conceal that he is sometimes deficient; for indiscriminate panegyric never adds to the credit of the person whom we wish to praise, and seldom

to that of the panegyrist who offers it. There is one necessary deficiency which cannot be imputed to the historian, viz. that of observation. The vast empire of Russia has now been examined with a philosophical eye; Gmelin and Pallas have pervaded the mountains of Lapland, the deserts of Siberia and Kamtschatka, and have returned with a rich harvest of information. On the opposite continent we have had few observers: the industrious and accurate Kalm did not reach the very high latitudes, which are the fields of Mr. Pennant's discoveries; the occasional visits of navigators could only lead them to examine what chance offered to their view; and the furs, supplied by commerce, were chiefly those which the caprice of fashion, or the inclemency of the Russian seasons demanded. A fanciful colour, or a compact closeness of the down were the chief grounds of preference. An Arctic Zoology must consequently be, at present, incomplete; but Mr. Pennant seems to have procured every assistance in his power, and we have more reason to be surprised at the extent and variety of his catalogue, than to lament its defects.

The description of animals, as subjects of natural history, is composed of many detached histories, frequently in an artificial order, and seldom so connected as to elucidate each other in a considerable degree. For this reason, we have never considered the disputes concerning the mode of classing them, as important or useful: any method, or none, is almost equally indifferent; for, while the best scarcely confers any advantage, the genera are so few, that the worst is sufficiently useful; and, in general, we have little necessity for more comprehensive arrangements. Mr. Pennant follows his former plan, which most of his readers may very readily understand. It is not inconvenient or erroneous.

If we take any connected view of zoology, it will be suggested by the particular opinions of the author, in his Introduction: As Mr. Pennant therefore wished to establish the originality of the old world, we were led to examine how far the facts which he mentioned contributed to the support of his opinion. Though the result seems unfavourable to it, we cannot accuse him of avoiding the trial, since he has added a table of the quadrupeds, pointing out their comparative situations in the old and new world. We cannot examine the subject in its full extent; but shall add a few of the facts, which seem, in our opinion, to oppose the migration of animals from Asia to the western coast of America.

It is now generally agreed that America, when first discovered, had neither the horse, ass, cow, sheep, hog, or goat. It has indeed been said, that sheep, or some similar animal, had

had been seen in California, and Mr. Pallas has received a parcel of wool from the island Kadjack; but the authorities, for the original existence of sheep in America, are not of the first kind, and commerce is so frequent between the adjoining islands, and the continents in the Northern Pacific, that we must still remain ignorant respecting the source of the wool. If animals had ever migrated, we should suspect, that some of these would at least have been found on the adjoining American coast, particularly the dog, which, in Kamtschatka, is of the wolf-kind. The bison too, the American ox, an European animal, which may be supposed to have travelled through the straits, is not now found farther west than about six hundred miles from Hudson's Bay, or more north than New Mexico. Respecting the dog, we shall extract the following intelligence from Mr. Pallas.

‘I have seen at Moscow about twenty spurious animals from dogs and black wolves. They are for the most part like wolves, except that some carry their tails higher, and have a kind of coarse barking. They multiply among themselves; and some of the whelps are greyish, rusty, or even of the whitish hue of the arctic wolves: and one of those I saw, in shape, tail, and hair, and even in barking, so like a cur, that, was it not for his head and ears, his ill-natured look, and fearfulness at the approach of man, I should hardly have believed that it was of the same breed.’

There are, on the contrary, many animals peculiar to America, which we have never yet discovered in Europe, particularly the puma and lynx. Badgers also are found in the Yaik, and then disappear till we arrive at Hudson's Bay. With respect to the pine martin,

‘It is remarkable, that notwithstanding this species extends across the continent of America, from Hudson's Bay to the opposite side, yet it is lost on the Asiatic side of the straits of Tschuktschi; nor is it recovered till you reach Catherinebourg, a district of Siberia west of Tobolsk, and twenty-five degrees west longitude distant from America. The finest in the known world are taken about Ufa and in the mountains of Caucasus. It is known that the Tschuktschi procure the skins for cloathing themselves from the Americans; their country being destitute of trees, and consequently of the animals, inhabitants of forests, furnishing these useful articles.’

We need not however enlarge farther on this subject; for, if we descend to the lower orders of animals, the difficulty will proportionally increase. It is indeed highly probable, that a few occasional migrations have only taken place; and that the American continent, with respect to its animals, perhaps

haps with respect to the greater part of its original inhabitants, is a distinct world.

Where the animals are the same with those mentioned in the British Zoology, Mr. Pennant refers to it; but he sometimes adds new species, and sometimes corrects the mistakes in that work. In these instances, his candour demands our applause. In general, the descriptions are exact, the synonyms numerous and clear. There are so many interesting circumstances that we must mention only the most striking.

In the description of the Iceland falcon, Mr. Pennant introduces some account of the origin of falconry, and examines the passages in Aristotle and Martial, which have been supposed to establish its great antiquity. In that of Aristotle, our author thinks, that by 'the casual concurrence' of the hawks and small birds, the latter were terrified so as to be easily taken; but he does not seem to recollect, that the hawks are said to appear 'on hearing themselves called.' Perhaps, indeed, on any sudden appearance of a flight of small birds, the boys might eagerly call to each other, and the hawks soon understanding the signal, joined in the sport. This indeed does not show, that there had been any training, but it is somewhat different from chance. The epigram in Martial, which by the way is the 195th not the 216th, consists but of two lines, and is entitled *Accipiter*.

'*Prædo fuit volucrum, famulus nunc aucupis idem  
Decipit, & captas non sibi, mæret aves.*'

Mr. Pennant supposes, that the word 'decipit' shows that the hawk was not trained, but merely used as a snare, to entice small birds under a net, or to the lime twigs.' In fact, the hawk rather terrifies, or seemingly fascinates, than misleads; besides, whatever force we allow to the word 'decipit,' the contrast in the first line is too strong to be overlooked; *prædo fuit volucrum, famulus nunc aucupis.* What can this change imply, but some kind of training. There are, we believe, similar passages of the same kind in classical authors; but, as Mr. Pennant has fixed on these only, and as the full description of the subject would lead us out of our way, we must confine ourselves to his remarks; and we think it highly probable, from the passages before us, that some kind of education was even then employed. The modern diversion in Italy, of fixing an owl on a pole, to entice small birds, is by no means analogous; for the common owl never preys on birds but by accident, and consequently does not excite so much terror.

We have however seldom any occasion to differ from Mr. Pennant; and shall now insert a passage, in which we entirely agree

agree with him. Our readers will recollect, that some naturalists have opposed our author's opinion relating to the turkey. Mr. Pennant contended that it was a native of the new world; some earlier naturalists, and lately Mr. Barrington, on the contrary, that it is found in Africa. After diligently weighing the several arguments, we think that Mr. Pennant has clearly established his first opinion. The remarks on the naturalists of the sixteenth century we cannot insert, as the whole would be too long; besides, the latter part is most interesting.

'I shall now collect from authors the several parts of the world where turkeys are unknown in the state of nature. Europe has no share in the question, it being generally agreed, that they are exotic in respect to our continent.

'Neither are they found in any part of Asia Minor, or the Asiatic Turkey, notwithstanding ignorance of their true origin first caused them to be named from that empire. About Aleppo, capital of Syria, they are only met with domesticated, like other poultry. In Armenia they are unknown, as well as in Persia, having been brought from Venice by some Armenian merchants into that empire; where they are still so scarce, as to be preserved among other rare fowls in the royal menagerie.

'In India they are kept for use in our settlements, and imported from Europe, as I have been more than once informed by gentlemen long resident in that country.

'Du Halde acquaints us, that they are not natives of China; but were introduced there from other countries. He errs, from misinformation, in saying that they are common in India.

'I will not quote Gemelli Careri, to prove that they are not found in the Philippine islands, because that gentleman, with his pen, travelled round the world in his easy chair, during a very long indisposition and confinement.

'But Dampier bears witness that none are found in Mindanao.

'The hot climate of Africa barely suffers these birds to exist in that vast continent, except under the care of mankind. Very few are found in Guinea, except in the hands of the Europeans: the negroes declining to breed any, on account of their great tenderness.

'Prosper Alpinus satisfies us that they are not found either in Nubia or in Egypt. He describes the meleagrids of the ancients; and only proves that the Guinea hens were brought out of Nubia, and sold at a great price at Cairo, but is totally silent about the turkey of the moderns.

'Let me in this place observe, that the Guinea-hens have long been imported into Britain. They were cultivated in our farm-yards; for I discover, in 1277, in the grainge of Clifton, in the parish of Ambrosden, in Buckinghamshire, among other articles, vi. mutilones, and sex Africanæ fæminæ; for this fowl was familiarly known by the names of *Afra avis*, and *Gallina Africana*.



*Africana & Numida.* It was introduced into Italy from Africa, and from Rome into our country. They were neglected here by reason of their tenderness and difficulty of rearing. We do not find them in the bills of fare of our ancient feasts: neither do we find the turkey: which last argument amounts to almost a certainty, that such a hardy and princely bird had not found its way to us. The other likewise was then known here by its classical name; for that judicious writer, Dr. Caius, describes, in the beginning of the reign of Elizabeth, the Guinea fowl, for the benefit of his friend Gesner, under the name of *meleagris*, bestowed on it by Aristotle.

Having denied, on the very best authorities, that the turkey ever existed as a native of the old world, I must now bring my proofs of its being only a native of the new; and of the period in which it made its first appearance in Europe.

The first precise description of these birds is given by Ovideo; who in 1525, drew up a summary of his greater work, the History of the Indies, for the use of his monarch Charles V. This learned man had visited the West Indies and its islands in person, and paid particular regard to the natural history. It appears from him, that the turkey was in his days an inhabitant of the greater islands, and of the main land. He speaks of them as peacocks; for, being a new bird to him, he adopts that name, from the resemblance he thought they bore to the former: "But, says he, the neck is bare of feathers, but covered with a skin which they change after their fantastic, into divers colours. They have a horn as it were on their front, and haïres on the breast." He describes other birds, which he also calls peacocks. They are of the gallinaceous genus, and known by the name of Curassao birds: the male of which is black, the female ferruginous.

The next who speaks of them as natives of the main land of the warmer parts of America, is Francisco Fernandez, sent there by Philip II. to whom he was physician. This naturalist observed them in Mexico. We find by him, that the Indian name of the male was *huexolotl*, of the female *cihuatotolin*: he gives them the title of *Gallus Indicus*, and *Gallo-Paso*. As the Indians as well as Spaniards domesticated these useful birds, he speaks of the size by comparison, saying that the wild were twice the magnitude of the tame; and that they were shot with arrows or guns. I cannot learn the time when Fernandez wrote. It must be between 1555 and 1598, the period of Philip's reign.

Pedro de Cieza mentions turkies on the Isthmus of Darien. Lery, a Portuguese author, asserts that they are found in Brasil, and gives them an Indian name; but since I can discover no traces of them in that diligent and excellent naturalist Marcgrave, who resided long in that country, I must deny my assent. But the former is confirmed by that able and honest navigator Dampier, who saw them frequently, as well wild as tame, in the

the province of Yucatan, now reckoned part of the kingdom of Mexico.

‘In North America they were observed by the very first discoverers. When Rene de Laudonniere, patronised by admiral Coligni, attempted to form a settlement near the place where Charlestown now stands, he met with them on his first landing, in 1564, and by his historian, has represented them with great fidelity in the 5th plate of the recital of his voyage. From his time, the witnesses to their being natives of this continent are innumerable. They have been seen in flocks of hundreds in all parts, from Louisiana even to Canada: but at this time are extremely rare in a wild state, except in the more distant parts, where they are still found in vast abundance.

‘It was from Mexico or Yucatan that they were first introduced into Europe; for it is certain that they were imported into England as early as the year 1524, the 15th of Henry VIII. We probably received them from Spain, with which we had great intercourse till about that time. They were most successfully cultivated in our kingdom from that period; insomuch that they grew common in every farm-yard, and became even a dish in our rural feasts by the year 1585; for we may certainly depend on the word of old Tusser, in his account of the Christmas husbandlie-fare.

“Beefe, mutton, and porke, shred pies of the best,  
Pig, veale, goose and capon, and turkey well drest:  
Cheese, apples, and nuts, jolic carols to heare,  
As then in the countrie, is counted good cheare.”

‘But at this very time they were so rare in France, that we are told that the very first which was eaten in that kingdom appeared at the nuptial feast of Charles IX. in 1570.

‘They are now very common in all parts of Russia, but will not thrive in Siberia; are cultivated in Sweden, and even in Norway, where they degenerate in size.’

The extent of this quotation will necessarily limit our subsequent remarks.

As a specimen of our author's general manner, we shall select the following article entire, and we have chosen it for two reasons, to explain what Mr. Pennant means by ‘appendages,’ in a subsequent quotation; and to establish a fact, which has been often asserted, and almost as frequently denied. When this able naturalist thought himself no longer at liberty to become the zoologist of North America, and gave his work the title of *Arctic Zoology*, he added the quadrupeds and birds of the North of Europe, Asia, and the Western coast of America. These additional parts he has distinguished by a *ſeur de lys*; and the following quotation is one of them.

‘A. European cuckoo, Br. Zool. i. N° 82. tab. xxxvi. ſem.—  
Latham, i. 509

*Cuculus*

*Cuculus Canorus*, Gjak, Faun. Suec. N° 96.

Le Coucou, De Buffon, vi. 305.—Lev. Mus.

‘C. With dove-coloured head, hind part of the neck, back, rump, and coverts: throat and under side of the neck, of a pale grey: breast and belly white, barred with black: primaries dusky; inner webs marked with white oval spots: tail cuneiform; middle feathers black, tipped with white; the rest marked with white spots on each web. Female. Neck of a brownish red: tail barred with rust-colour and black, and spotted with white.

‘Inhabits all parts of Europe, as high as Salten’s Fogderie, in Norway, within the arctic circle, and even at Loppen, in Finmark. It is found equally high in Asia; and extends as far as Kamtschatka. In all places it retains its singular note, and its more singular nature of laying its eggs in the nests of small birds, and totally deserting them. Of the above circumstance I beg leave to add a proof, which fell under my own notice in June 1778; when I saw a young cuckoo, almost full-grown (when I first discovered it) in the nest of a white wagtail, beneath some logs in a field adjacent to my house. The wagtail was as solicitous to feed it, as if it had been its own offspring; for, many days after the cuckoo fled, it was seen often perched on the adjacent walls, still attended and fed by the wagtail.

‘It arrives in the northern and eastern parts of Asia, about the tenth of June.’

In general Mr. Pennant has collected a variety of useful and entertaining materials, from the best sources, real observation, and careful observers; so that this work deserves great commendation; and, as a system of the natural history of those countries, shut up by an almost eternal barrier of ice, and bounded by deserts seemingly impassable, will be received with pleasure proportioned to the difficulty, and the little expectation which we could entertain of the acquisition. Our author’s own conclusion is candid and pathetic.

‘Having gone through the class of birds, let me remark, that there is the greatest probability, that numbers of those of Kamtschatka are common to North America; and that they pass there the seasons of migration; but not having actual proof of their being found on the new continent, I am obliged to place them in these appendages to each genus. The time may come, when it will be found necessary to remove them into the American sections. It is also likely, that numbers may seek a more southern retreat, and stock Japan and China with their periodical flocks. I have done as much as the lights of my days have furnished me with. In some remote age, when the British offspring will have pervaded the whole of their vast continent, or the descendants of the hardy Russians colonized the western parts from their distant Kamtschatka, the road

road in future time to new conquests : after, perhaps, bloody contests between the progeny of Britons and Russians, about countries to which neither have any right ; after the deaths of thousands of claimants, and the extirpation of the poor natives by the sword, and new-imported diseases, a quiet settlement may take place, civilization ensue, and the arts of peace be cultivated : learning, the luxury of the soul, diffuse itself through the nation ; and some naturalist arise, who, with spirit and abilities, may explore each boundary of the ocean which separates the Asiatic and American continents ; may render certain what I can only suspect ; and by his observations on the feathered tribe, their flights and migrations, give utility to mankind, in naval and æconomical operations, by auguries which the ancients knew well to apply to the benefit of their fellow-creatures. He may, perhaps, smile on the labours of the arctic zoologist (if by that time they are not quite obsolete) ; and, as the animate creation never changes her course, he may find much right ; and, if he is endowed with a good heart, will candidly attribute the errors to misinformation, or the common infirmity of human nature.'

In every work of natural history, the ornaments, at this period of science, claim some attention ; and, in the Arctic Zoology, we have much to commend and somewhat to blame. Of the genera, Mr. Pennant has given only a few specimens ; for the plates in the British Zoology have supplied representations of the greater number. Those before us are clear and expressive, but are not remarkable for their beauty or their elegance. We do not mean to blame our author for, not following a custom which we have frequently condemned. He has done every thing which we desire ; and those who wish for more, we should suspect would prefer entertainment to information. The drawings of scenes, in the wilder and more mountainous parts of the North, are often exceptionable ; proportion is frequently violated, so as to destroy the splendid images which the sublimity of Mr. Pennant's description has raised. We cannot think that they add value to this respectable work.

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*Fragmenta Chirurgica & Medica. Auctore Gul. Fordyce, M. D. &c.*  
*Eq. Aur. 8vo. 3s. 6d. sewed. Cadell.*

SIR William Fordyce has published, in this elegant little pamphlet, some facts which occurred in an extensive practice. It was his usual custom, and it is a very useful one, to preserve, in writing, every singular case, or important observation ; and, from these memorials, the present work is selected, and published as a part only of a larger collection. It is not to be expected, that every case will appear equally important,

portant, or that some will not occasionally occur, among the choice treasures of every practitioner, which may have been frequently observed by others. Physicians are sometimes interested by adventitious circumstances; and that disease is raised into importance which engaged their attention, though it may not be found to contain any very useful lesson. Some of these histories are singular, and the treatment, in one or two instances, is remarkably so; but we see no reason, from this work, to detract from the author's character, or to hesitate in pronouncing him an active and intelligent physician.

The subjects are, Abscesses of the Liver, one of which penetrated through the Diaphragm, into the Cavity of the Thorax; *Ægri tudines ad Anum*; Asthma; Calculus Vesicæ fellæ; Pain of the Head; Hæmorrhage from wearing a Mercurial Girdle; Cancer; Circinus, a peculiar cutaneous Eruption; Colic, from Wind about the Valve of the Colon, cured by the stomach pills (probably the *pil. stomachicæ* of the Edinburgh Dispensatory); Dysentery; Intermittents. These last were relieved by a medicine, recommended by Harris in his *Pharmacologia Anti Empyrica*, resembling the *pulvis coriachini*, together with a cordial draught prescribed by Decker; in his notes on Barbette. The following history we shall select, on account of its importance.

‘Donaldus Stewart, e decurionibus legionis Scoto-Britannæ de Drumlanrick, sub auspiciis Belgarum Fœderatorum militantis, febre tertiana, tempore autumnali anni M, DCC, L, graviter laborabat. Primum emetica, posthæc cortex Peruvianus exhibitus est; neutiquam inclinante morbo. Post tres menses, Londinum a decurione ventum est; ubi febris, ita uti novæ ex nova cœli temperie consequuta vires, in dies ingravescebat, et, pluribus numeratis accessionibus, in quartanam desit. Pulvis Cornachini nullum adtulit levamen; neque haustus Deckerianus, vel tantillum, frigus minuebat. Quonam vertendum? Experientia magistra edoctus, illam institui hujusce miserrimi curationem, quæ, sancte possum adjurare, nunquam me falsum habuerat, dum in Belgio Hispanico medicinam facerem, inter prætorianos sacræ majestatis Britannicæ anno M, DCC, XLVIII: i. e. Sanguine prius misso, nitrata in emulsione præbui, cumque his una sal ammoniacum specie e contrayerva commistum. Lenior inde insequens paroxysmus: minus erat frigoris, minus quoque caloris ac febris. Ex sanguinis autem inflammatione et visciditate indicia arripui venæ iterum secandæ, et in usum eorum, quæ supra scripta sunt, permanendi. Nec frustra fui; arguebat enim proximæ accessionis magnopere deminuta vis, recte ea non prætermisissæ fuisse indicia. Imperavi, ut continuaretur usus emulsionis; ne que post unquam rediit febris.

‘Hanc medendi rationem seni medico apud Eyndhoven acceptam refero; qui, Baronis Van Swieten sub Boërhavio Hippocrate

pocrate Batavo condiscipulus, mihi olim religiosissime adseveravit, lanceolam et nitrum, in regionum illarum palustrium intermittentibus, singula perficere atque absolvere.

The next subject of his attention is, the Fluor Albus; and our author, among other prescriptions, thinks it highly serviceable, in this complaint, to breakfast on old Cheshire cheese and London porter. The following observations relate to the Fluxus Menstruus; Hæmorrhage; Hæmorrhoids; Dropsy, and, on this subject, we find some valuable observations; Madness; the use of Milk; Lippitudo, cured by smoking; Lues Venerea; Worms, the remedy principally recommended is the Pulvis Stanni; Measles; Paronychia; Pulp of Colocynth, or rather some disagreeable consequences, from, probably, too large a Dose of the Remedy; Rhubarb; Rheumatism; the Influenza of 1782; Neutral Salts, in which the author attempts, we think unsuccessfully, to establish a difference in their action, as purgatives; Bleeding; Sleep; Small Pox; Acid in the Stomach; Blisters, which, in acute diseases of the lungs, the author thinks may be applied with advantage to the ankles, agreeably to Hippocrates' observation, that, in these diseases, tumours on the calves of the legs are serviceable; Ointments; and Wounds.

It will be obvious, from the variety of subjects, we can give little account of each, unless our article was extended to the size of the work. Our readers, from the specimen already selected, will have anticipated our observation, that the language is elegant, but sometimes laboured with too much care, and, in a few instances, tortured into obscurity. On the whole however, the attentive practitioner will find several valuable hints occasionally interspersed. As we have transcribed a part which relates to medicine, we shall conclude the article with an unexpected recovery from a desperate wound.

‘Georgius Oylett tertiæ cohortis prætorianæ miles, dum fœderatorum exercitus anno M,DCC,XLVIII ad Brabantia vicum Nessleri castra haberet, in abdomine graviter acinace vulneratus erat. Interposita semihora, inveni eum magnam intestinorum partem, ne penitus evolverentur, cavo galero suffulcientem. Valde illa inflata, omentumque pulvere conspersum; ante quod discissum; in sedes suas intestina nullo modo condere potui, tametsi per se late patebat plaga. Ex cibo et potu, quibus se paulo ante liberaliter invitaverat, venustissima sane vasorum lacteorum facies per mesenterium disperforum. Repositis omnibus, quum sanguis satis multus ex omenti arteriis adhuc flueret, acu prælonga futuram feci interruptam dictam; id quod ægerrime fiebat, propter sponte se retrahens peritonæum, et ipsam muscutorum abdominalium crassitudinem. Fomentis adhibitis, oviumque recens cæsarum pellibus hominem in dies obvolvendo, in integrum is restitutus est.’

*History and Practice of Aeroſtation. By Tiberius Cavallo, F.R.S.*  
8vo. 6s. in Boards. Dilly.

SINCE aeroſtation continues to be fashionable, an abſtract of the different voyages, and the means of repeating the experiment, with ſucceſs, will be generally intereſting: Mr. Cavallo has rendered it alſo very entertaining. The hiſtory of the attempts to fly, previous to the fire-balloon of Montgolfier, is a pleaſing performance; and it will gratify the vanity of the French philoſophers, to perceive how deſperate the ſucceſs once ſeemed to be. Mr. Cavallo and Dr. Black indeed conteſt, with juſtice, the priority of invention of air-balloons; but the credit of Meſſrs. Charles and Roberts is ſcarcely diminiſhed by theſe claims, for they ſeem not to have heard of the Engliſh experiments on this ſubject, and were led to employ inflammable air, merely from ſuſpecting, that Montgolfier's balloon was raiſed by the aſſiſtance of a peculiar gas, from the burning ſtraw. It would be unjuſt not to ſelect Dr. Black's very modeſt and intelligent letter to Dr. James Lind.

“ Dear Sir,

“ The perſon who firſt diſcovered with exactneſs the ſpecific gravity of inflammable air, was, ſo far as I know, Mr. Cavendiſh: I never heard of any experiments made with that intention, before his appeared in the Philoſophical Tranſactions for the year 1766. It had been my conſtant practice before, to ſhew, every year, in what manner it burns when pure and unmixed with air, and how it explodes when air is mixed with it before it is fired; but Mr. Cavendiſh made a variety of ſuch mixtures by rule and meaſure, and deſcribes in the ſame paper the manner in which they ſeverally explode. As ſoon as I read the above paper, it occurred to me, as an obvious conſequence of Mr. Cavendiſh's diſcovery, that if a ſufficiently thin and light bladder were filled with inflammable air, the bladder, and air in it, would neceſſarily form a maſs lighter than the ſame bulk of atmopheric air, and which would riſe in it; this I mentioned to ſome of my friends, and in my lectures, the next time I had occaſion to ſpeak of inflammable air, which was either in the year 1767 or 1768; and, as I thought it would be an amuſing experiment for the ſtudents, I applied to Dr. Monro's diſſector, to prepare for me the allantois of a calf. The allantois was prepared, but not until after ſome time had paſſed, and when I was engaged with another part of my courſe, and did not chooſe to interrupt the buſineſs then going on; ſo I dropped the experiment for that year, and in the ſubſequent years I only mentioned the thing as an obvious and ſelf-evident conſequence of Mr. Cavendiſh's diſcovery; but finding generally ſome difficulty in providing an allantois at the proper  
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time, I never made the experiment, which I considered as merely amusing. About two months ago I was informed, by a gentleman in the south of Ireland, that he had tried it, and that it succeeds perfectly well."

In the remarks on Lunardi's and Blanchard's experiments, Mr. Cavallo agrees with those which we have given. He however is more sanguine in his expectations of being able to direct these machines; but, notwithstanding the success of messieurs Roberts and Mr. Hullin, we think its attainment improbable. The history of aerostation, (perhaps from the rules of etymology it should be aerostation or aerostation, a græco fonte, parce detorta \*) is not yet of great importance. The several adventurers seem to have ascended and returned full of wonder, and to have raised universal admiration, though no one experiment has been hitherto made, which inclines us to look up with respect to this new science. The voyage above referred to is chiefly interesting from the effects of the oars, in impelling the balloon: we shall transcribe the observations.

"We perceived below us some clouds, that ran very rapidly from south to north. We descended to the level of those clouds, in order to follow that current, the direction of which was changed since our departure. The close of day-light being near, we determined to follow that current for 40 minutes only: increasing our velocity by the use of our oars, we endeavoured to deviate from the direction of the current; but we could not obtain a deviation greater than 22 degrees towards the east. The length of our route, during about one hour and a quarter, was 2100 feet. Willing to try whether the wind nearer the earth was strong, we descended to the height of 300 feet, where we met an exceedingly rapid current. At some distance from Arras, we perceived a wood, over which we did not hesitate to pass, though there was hardly any day-light upon the earth; and in 20 minutes time we came near Arras, on the plain of Beuvry, distant nearly three quarters of a mile from Bethune, in Artois. As we could not distinguish, amongst the shadows, the body of an old mill, upon which we were going to descend, we avoided it by the help of our oars, and descended amidst a numerous assembly of inhabitants."

"When they descended, which was at 40 minutes past six o'clock, there were above 200 pounds weight of ballast still remaining in the boat. The way they had travelled was about 50 leagues, or 150 miles. The account of this voyage is concluded with the following remarks:—"Those experiments

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\* From *aerōs* and *statos*, comes *aerostat*, qui in aëre stat; from thence, according to analogy, the substantive is formed, not by adding *tion*, but *ation*. Aerostation must be derived from *aerost*, which has no meaning.



shew, that, far from going against the wind, as is said by some persons to be possible, in a certain manner, and some aeronauts pretend to have actually done it; we have only obtained, by means of two oars, a deviation of 22 degrees; it is however certain, that if we could have used our four oars, we might have deviated about 40 degrees from the direction of the wind; and as our machine would have been capable of carrying seven persons, it would have been easy for five persons to have gone, and to have put in action eight oars, by which means a deviation of about 80 degrees might have been obtained.

‘We have already observed, that if we did not deviate more than 22 degrees, it was because the wind carried us at the rate of 24 miles an hour: and it is natural to judge, that if the wind had been twice as strong as it was, we should not have deviated more than half what we actually did; and, on the contrary, if the wind had been only half as strong, our deviation would have been proportionably greater.’

These remarks have supplied a defect which we formerly complained of: but balloons of this size can seldom be procured; for this was an oblong spheroid, nearly 47 feet by 28. But it is certainly possible, by machinery, to increase the velocity of the strokes of the oar, by which the necessary number of rowers would be greatly diminished. On the other hand, the chance of violent currents, which the navigator can only rise above by the loss of ballast, or sink below by the diminution of his buoyant powers, will probably prevent any very permanent effect from such contrivances.

There is one chemical fact, in the relation of this and some other voyages, which deserves attention. The heat of the inflammable air is always greater than that of the surrounding atmosphere, when the balloon is elevated to a considerable height. In this experiment, the mercury in a thermometer, inserted into one of the appendices of the balloon, was raised to 104°, while the external one was only at 63°; and this internal heat could not arise from the larger mass of air not so quickly acquiring the surrounding temperature, for the heat of the air near the earth seems not to have exceeded 77°. Inflammable air, we know, is more expansive with a given degree of heat than common air; but this extraordinary increase must be owing to other causes. We are not acquainted with any instance in which latent heat is let loose by expansion: on the contrary, it is generally absorbed. In the gradual manner in which a balloon is filled, it is probable that the heat, raised by the effervescence, is dissipated before the machine ascends.

The practice of aerostation is explained with great perspicuity and exactness. The problems are not indeed demon-

strated, but their foundation is evident: we would however recommend a previous trial of the specific gravity of the air produced in the particular operation; since, in different experiments, there seems to be some variety in this respect.

Mr. Cavallo adds little to the means of directing balloons, or to the uses which we may derive from them. He corrects, with propriety, some crude and inaccurate attempts, which we have formerly endeavoured to explode; but we think the purposes to which, in our author's opinion, they may be applied, will be more easily attained by other methods: to some of them, particularly to the enquiry into the formation of clouds, rain, &c. we think they are inapplicable.

On the whole, this seems a very rational and entertaining performance: if aerostation is likely to be advantageous, we shall join in the author's wish, 'that the learned and encouragers of useful knowledge may unanimously concur in endeavouring to promote it.' Though we still continue in our former opinion, we would recommend proper and judicious trials: it is only to the childish spectacles, and the extravagant and exaggerated relations, that we are enemies.

*Comments on the last Edition of Shakspeare's Plays. By John Monk Mason. 8vo. 5s. in Boards. Dilly.*

**S**HALL we never rest from these labours?—We have indeed great reason to think that our repose is still distant: as among some of the ancient conquerors, when the enemy was subdued, the ardour was supported by intestine feuds; so the commentators, when they have elucidated their author, contend with each other. Mr. Mason had made a considerable collection of materials for a new edition of our great dramatist, when Mr. Steevens' edition first appeared, in which he owns, that many of his amendments and alterations were anticipated. He was somewhat mortified at a discovery, which compelled him to relinquish a favourite pursuit, from whence he 'expected to derive some degree of credit in the literary world.'

'This however, he adds, was a secondary consideration; and my principal purpose will be answered to my wish, if the Comments which I now submit to the public shall, in any other hands, contribute materially to a more complete edition of our inimitable poet.'

Mr. Monk Mason some time since published an edition of Massinger, of which we did not speak to his satisfaction. He says,

'My having unfortunately asserted, in the Preface, that this edition of Massinger would be found more correct than the best  
of

of those which had hitherto been published, of any of the ancient dramatic writers, drew down upon me the high displeasure of the Critical Reviewers, and of course the censure of that numerous tribe of readers, who never presume to judge for themselves, or to hazard an opinion on any performance, until they have been taught what they ought to say of it, by these learned professors of the art of teaching grown gentlemen to think.

We are sorry that we have displeased him; but we will appeal to himself, and he must necessarily confess, that if an edition, whose only merit was correctness, by any accident became incorrect, it could not be entitled to our approbation. We shall extract his own words.

‘My first essay in verbal criticism, I mean the publication of Massinger’s plays, proved rather unfortunate, through the negligence of the person entrusted with the conduct of it; a total inattention to the directions of the editor, with respect to the *arrangement* of the text, the *amendments*, and the *notes*; and a multitude of *typographical errors*, have deprived that edition of the *only merit* to which it could have pretended, which was that of *CORRECTNESS*.’

These Comments are of no great importance; their first object is to detect the mistakes of some former annotators, who have attempted to elucidate Shakspeare by depth of learning, and the refinements of philosophy. Another view of this author is to explain difficult or corrupt passages, which have hitherto, from their insignificance, escaped the notice of other editors, or have been omitted on account of their uncertainty. We shall select an instance of the former kind.

“For in that sleep of death what dreams may come  
When we have shuffled off this mortal coil,  
Must give us pause.”

‘This passage hath hitherto been entirely unnoticed by any of the editors, and has of course received their tacit approbation; yet to me it appears to be erroneous. Hamlet is not considering what may possibly happen to us when we have got rid of the tumult and bustle of the world, which is the only sense that the words mortal coil, can possibly imply, but what may befall us when we have shaken off this covering of flesh, that part of us which is subject to mortality.—It appears clearly from the general tenor of the speech that this is Hamlet’s meaning: and I have never seen the part performed by a good actor who did not show that he understood the passage in this sense; yet that is a sense which the words, as they stand, cannot possibly express. I am therefore thoroughly persuaded that we should read, “When we have shuffled off this mortal *spoil*,” instead of *coil*, which differs but little from the former reading, expresses

presses fully the idea of Hamlet, and that in language highly poetical.

'The slough or skin of a snake which he casts every year, is called his *spoil*.—It is to this Shakspeare alludes; and the words *shuffled off*, happily express the kind of motion which the snake must necessarily make use of, in order to free himself from his old covering.

'An expression similar to that which I contend for, occurs in Howell, who may be considered as Shakspeare's contemporary, being employed in public business at the time of Shakspeare's death:—In his last letter he says,

"Yet the noblest part of us may be said to be then set at liberty, when having shaken off this *slough* of flesh," &c.

'*Slough of flesh* and *mortal spoil*, are perfectly synonymous.'

In the following passage, Mr. Mason seems to have supported the old reading with propriety.

"My *my* of life

Is fall'n into the fear, the yellow leaf."

'The old reading it seems is *way of life*, and it should not have been discarded; as the following passages prove that it was a mode of expression in use at that time, as course of life is now.

'In Massinger's *Very Woman*, the doctor says,

"In way of life, I did enjoy one friend;"

'And again, in the *New Way to pay Old Debts*, lady Allworth says,

"If that when I was mistress of myself,

And in my way of youth," &c.

There are some other parts of Shakspeare which are well illustrated; but we must leave to naturalists, his opinion relative to the prolific power of loaches. 'Your chamber-lice breeds fleas like a loach,' says the carrier; that is, says Mr. Mason, 'your chamber-lice breeds fleas as fast as loaches breed' not *fleas* but *loaches*. We are not acquainted with the fish; and can find no very respectable authority for the fact; *all* fish are exceedingly prolific.

In general however the commentary is trifling, and the passages such that we scarcely wish for *any* interpretation. In some instances they seem to be erroneous; but it is not a pleasing task to notice incorrectness; and we were reminded, in the Preface, how ungrateful the office of a censor is, even when it is indispensable. Our author has not improved the state of the text. We wish to see Shakspeare in his original form, with only those faults corrected which were obviously and clearly committed by the printer. The old copies are unpleasant, from their form and numerous abbreviations. Mr. Steevens, in re-printing the quarto editions, deserves the credit of a faithful copyist, and he aimed at no more.

*The Newspaper. A Poem. By the Rev. G. Crabbe. 4to. 2s. Doddsley.*

‘THE Poem, says the author, which I now offer to the public, is, I believe, the only one written upon the subject; at least, it is the only one which I have any knowledge of: and, fearing there may not be found in it many things to engage the reader’s attention, I am willing to take the strongest hold I can upon him, by offering something which has the claim of novelty.’

This, we apprehend, is rather inaccurately expressed; for if, as he fears, many things are not found in it worthy notice, their nature cannot be altered by his subsequent claim to novelty.

We believe, with him, that no poem has been professedly written on the subject: but the artifices of newspaper editors have been exposed, in a strong vein of humour, by Foote, in the Bankrupt; and of which we think this gentleman might have availed himself, and strengthened his satire against those pests of society, from whose wanton or malevolent attacks no character is secure.

His talents are indeed more conspicuous in the pathetic and descriptive, than the satyric line. Humour he certainly possesses in no inconsiderable degree; but we do not perceive that force and spirit in the present poem, which is in general deemed essential to compositions of this kind. It is, however, a work of genius, and we shall therefore consider it with attention.

‘The greatest part of the poem, we are told, was written immediately after the dissolution of the late parliament.’ It opens with observing, that

‘A time like this; a busy, bustling time,  
Suits ill with writers, very ill with rhyme;  
Unheard we sing when party rage runs strong,  
And mightier madness checks the flowing song.’

The author considers newspapers as most destructive to literature.

‘For these unread the noblest volumes lie,  
For these in sheets unfoil’d the Muses die;  
Unbought, unblest, the virgin copies wait  
In vain for fame, and sink unseen to fate.’

He next calls on his brother poets to support the common cause, and thus states the nature of his subject,

' I sing of news, and all those vapid sheets,  
 The rattling hawker vends thro' gaping streets ;  
 Whate'er their name, or what the time they fly  
 Damp from the press to charm the reader's eye :—  
 For, soon as morning dawns with roseate hue,  
 The Herald of the morn arises too ;  
 Post after Post succeeds, and all day long  
 Gazettes and Ledgers swarm, a noisy throng.  
 Gray evening comes, and comes not evening gray  
 With all the trifling tidings of the day ?  
 Of all these triflers, all like these I write ;  
 Oh ! like my subject, could my song delight,  
 The crowd at Lloyd's one poet's name should raise,  
 And all the alleys echo to his praise.

' In shoals the hours their constant numbers bring,  
 Like insects waking to th' advancing spring,  
 Which take their rise from grubs obscure that lie  
 In shallow pools, or thence ascend the sky ;  
 Such are these base ephemeras, so born  
 To die before the next revolving morn.'

These lines, though we think the eleventh exceptionable, are full of descriptive humour ; and the simile which concludes them extremely apposite, though the expression, ' or thence ascend the sky,' seems of no use but to eke out the line. Possibly *and* should be substituted for *or*, which would make it much less objectionable. We fully allow the beauty and propriety of those that follow.

' Yet soon each reptile tribe is lost but these,  
 In the first brushing of the wint'ry breeze ;  
 These still remain, a base but constant breed,  
 Whose swarming sons their short-liv'd fires succeed ;  
 No changing season makes their number less,  
 Nor Sunday shines a sabbath on the press.'

The author next stigmatizes two Sunday papers, considers their character in general, and observes, that

' They drop their maggots in the weak man's brain ;  
 That genial soil receives the fruitful store,  
 And there they grow, and breed a thousand more.'

He makes the following remarks on party-writers :

' Chief to the prosperous side the numbers sail,  
 Fickle and false, they veer with every gale ;  
 Soon as the chiefs, whom once they choose, lie low,  
 Their praise too slackens, and their aid moves slow ;

Not

'Not so when leagu'd with rising powers, their rage  
Then wounds th' unwary foe, and burns along the page.'

We apprehend the author is here mistaken. We have in another place observed, that the hireling scribblers of an unsuccessful faction appear more numerous, violent, and declamatory, than those of the successful. The latter, probably, by enjoying some share of their patron's fortunes, bask in indolence beneath the sun-shine of prosperity; but the others, stung with envy, exert all their powers, and give full vent to their malevolent passions. The author tells us, that 'golden fetters will make the faithless sure.'

'For those who deal in flattery or abuse  
Will sell them where they can the most produce.'

We can hardly allow these lines to be poetry, though we will not deny the truth of the position. But that the successful candidates for elevated stations do not bestow golden fetters on those who revile their conduct; or that these 'instinctive tribes' cannot 'buy with timely change their future bread,' seems pretty clear from the inundation of abuse always thrown on those in place, and the comparative silence relative to those who are merely candidates for it.

The effects which newspapers have on society in general, and on individuals, is next considered. The village freeholder, who at an ale-house club

'looks elate,

A little prop, and pillar of the state ;'  
is thus most excellently delineated.

'Here he delights the weekly news to con,  
And mingle comments as he blunders on ;  
To swallow all their varying authors teach,  
To spell a title and confound a speech :  
Till with a muddled mind he quits the news,  
And claims his nation's licence to abuse ;  
Then joins the cry, "that all the courtly race  
Strive but for power, and parley but for place ;"  
Yet hopes, good man ! "that all may still be well,"  
And thanks the stars that he's a vote to sell.'

The amusement newspapers in general afford, the nature of their advertisements, and all their component parts, are next considered. The characters of their volunteer correspondents in the political line, these brave assertors of their country's freedom, and defenders of its rights, are thus humorously described,

'These

' These Roman souls, like Rome's great sons, are known

To live in cells on labours of their own.

Thus Milo, could we see the noble chief,

Feeds, for his country's good, on legs of beef:

Camillus copies deeds for fordid pay,

Yet fights the public battles twice a day:

Ev'n now the god-like Brutus views his score

On the scroll'd bar-board, view'd too long before;

Where, tipling punch, grave Cato's self you'll see,

And Amor Patriæ vending smuggled tea.'

The account which follows, of our unfledged rhymesters, who seek an asylum for their perishable works in the 'Poet's Corner,'

' A fatal nursery for an infant muse.'

is equally laughable and just. The author advises them to leave the unprofitable trade, and

' Follow their calling, think the Muses foes,

Nor lean upon the pestle and compose.'

He exhorts those who are placed in a more elevated rank, to study their country's laws;

' Her court, her senate, and her arms adorn:—

and concludes with a compliment to the lord chancellor, to whom the Poem is dedicated.—Though this performance does not appear so highly finished as *THE VILLAGE*\*, it is certainly entitled to rank in the first class of modern productions.

*Letters to a Young Nobleman, upon various Subjects, particularly on Government and Civil Liberty. 8vo. 6s. in Boards. Sewell.*

**I**N the Introduction to these Letters, we are told that they were written without the most distant view of being submitted to the perusal of the public; and that they are indebted for their origin entirely to a compliance with the desire of a young gentleman of distinguished rank, who had a taste for the investigation of such political subjects as civil liberty and government. Indeed without this declaration, we should have concluded that the author's design was the same which he has thought proper to acknowledge. For we could not imagine that any writer would otherwise be induced, after a lapse of nine years, to lay before the public any remarks on Dr. Price's *Observations on the Nature of Civil Liberty*, &c. Hardly any other pamphlet ever gave rise to more numerous



comments than that celebrated production, an account of which appeared in our Review for February 1776\*.

We find however that most of these Letters were written in 1777; from which time they have lain almost forgotten, and, we are informed, would have remained so, had not some late publications, and the correspondence of some political writers with the volunteers of Ireland, but particularly Dr. Price's Letter to the Secretary of the Committee of the Citizens of Edinburgh, occasioned a revision of them. If, as our author seems to imagine, Dr. Price's doctrines continue to exert any influence on the minds of the people, it will doubtless be admitted by all those who entertain different political sentiments, that every thing which can resist their tendency should be called into operation. In this view of the subject, we must own that we know not any antidote more likely to prove efficacious than the Letters before us. They discover acute discernment, close investigation, and sound and dispassionate argument.

The first seven Letters in this collection are wholly employed on Dr. Price's Observations; and after the general character we have given of them, it will be sufficient that we present our readers with a specimen, in confirmation of our opinion.

"In his second section, the author (Dr. Price) pursues the subject of civil liberty, and the principles of government; but appears to beg the questions from which he argues. "Every free government," says he, "is the creature of the people."—"In every free state every man is his own legislator." Confirm, and allow him his own conceptions of freedom, and this may be true; but where can this government, this state be found; and where this freedom exercised consistently with either?—He confesses, indeed, that "it is obvious that civil liberty in its most perfect degree, can be enjoyed only in small states, where every member is capable of giving his suffrage in person, and of being chosen into public offices."—If the author, in any part of the map, can put his finger upon such a state, is it that for the sake, and for the correction of which he is taking so much pains?—"A great state, notwithstanding, may be still free, and self-governed," says he, *if, if, and if.*" Now these *ifs* are very frequently begging what reason and experience cannot grant: it is, however, a very pleasant Utopian manner of writing,

—*et hanc veniam petimusque damusque vicissim.*

*If*, then, the doctor will new model human nature; *if*, in his free state, he will give discernment, disinterestedness, magnanimity, patriotism, and a few other virtues, as well to the

electors, as the elected : *if* he will be answerable that the first shall choose their representatives freely, honestly, and prudently ; and that the latter will discharge their trust with virtue and wisdom ;—then all his *ifs* may be granted, and little doubt will remain of the happiness, the prosperity, and the liberty of his imaginary state.

‘ To a fair and free representation of the people, he adds, to render the government complete, an hereditary council, and a supreme executive magistrate at the head of it ; and then says, with a sneer,—“ we make it our boast in this-country, that this is our own constitution.” It is so ; and little else, if any thing, is wanting to make it perfect, but that perfection, which the doctor will not surely expect, the perfection of human nature. As far as the wisdom and power of man can effect, this government is exquisitely constituted ; as far as the frailty and imperfection of humanity will admit, it has, in general, been well administered. This is a truth to which candour will subscribe, notwithstanding all that turbulent, impatient, and disappointed spirits will urge to the contrary.—It must, indeed, be confessed, that the representation of the people might, and ought to be more fairly, and equally ordered, if any alteration could at this time be safely attempted ; but that every individual should be an elector, and every elector his own legislator ; that every representative should be subject to the controul of all his electors, and be actuated by as many opinions as he has of constituents ; that, in short, every measure of government should be a measure of common consent, and every act, the act of three or four millions of legislators, is a plan, which, if the doctor has really conceived in his closet, he will find difficult to execute in the air.

‘ Whether he succeeds or not, he will surely grant, that no nation can subsist without a government of some kind ; and what government can exist, if the governed have “ the power to model it as they please,” and to change its form as often as they, in their superior wisdom, shall see occasion ?

‘ If the supporters of this fashionable doctrine have also, on their parts, the power to new model the ideas of mankind, and to affix to long established terms, significations they never were conceived to bear, it is absurd to contend with them ; but if they will only admit that what is called government implies a relative subjection, that these two words have opposite imports, and that the latter can never be understood to signify the former, the absurdity of the contest must rest with them. In what sense is any man, or set of men governed, if they have a right, whenever they please, to abolish that government, or, in other words, to become governors themselves ? And how is “ government an institution for the benefit of the people governed,” when, at their pleasure, they have a right to reduce it to no government at all, and to introduce anarchy, the worst of calamities ?”

In the eighth Letter the author delivers general observations upon government and obedience, resulting from the American dispute; accompanied with Thoughts concerning an accommodation with America, in 1777. But this subject being now uninteresting, we shall quit it for the consideration of what follows, in the ninth Letter, which contains Thoughts on the English Constitution. However unpopular the assertion may be, in these times, the author hesitates not to affirm, that it is *influence* alone which directs all political government. This doctrine leads him to take a short view of our own constitution. He observes, that with respect to the three estates, it is hardly possible not to consider them under two very distinct predicaments. In their functions, it is necessary that they should be perfectly independent of each other. Their general interests, however, he remarks, are not independent, but mutual; and as these must naturally influence their functions, these great constituent parts of the state, when operating wholesomely, are not drawing in contrary directions, according to the general opinion, but pointing to one and the same salutary end, namely, the good of the whole. This is a proposition which, in our opinion, cannot be denied, without admitting the absurdity that the good of the whole community is not the end for which government was originally instituted.

In the tenth Letter, the author examines the political theories, that all human government proceeds from the people; and that there subsists a perfect equality between every individual of the human species.

‘When I took my leave of your lordship, I was going to observe, that there is one great fundamental maxim of the utmost consequence to be perfectly and distinctly comprehended—that all human government proceeds from the people. This important truth has, like all others, been abominably perverted, by the weakness, the vanity, the ambition, and other evil dispositions of men. The truly wise, temperate, and real friends of humanity have taken from it the most interesting and instructive lessons for the conduct of mankind, in the great concern of society and civilization; and, on the other hand, their pretended protectors, the favourers of independent and superlative democratical privileges, have deduced from the same source, tenets and principles utterly destructive of that welfare and prosperity, and even of those very ends they profess to establish.

‘The first have learned and taught, that man, a social creature, cannot naturally subsist without society, nor society without order, nor order without laws, nor laws without government—that the government of men, by those of their own  
species,

species, must necessarily have arisen from themselves, by their own act, and for the general good—that the axiom “that government is indispensibly requisite to that general good,” cannot be disputed; and, consequently, that it is both the duty, and the interest of the people to support it:—that to be governed, and, at the same time, to govern, is a gross absurdity—and that to persuade men to resist what they have necessarily established, under the pretence that they possess the right to abrogate that establishment, and to resume at their pleasure, and without the most evident cause, that power, which originated from them, is to excite them to in consequence, to rebellion against themselves, and to self-destruction.

‘It is, on the other hand, to this very pitch of anarchy and ruin, to this self-destruction, that the people would be driven by the precepts and principles of the latter, these zealots in the mistaken cause of democracy. Their fundamental doctrine is that of the perfect equality of mankind, than which nothing can be more dangerous, more impossible to reduce to practice, or more immediately subversive of all government. A doctrine, the fallacy of which is proved by the experience of every day, by the concurrence of all history, from the earliest times, and, above all, by the contemplation of all the works of the Creator, whether animate, or inanimate; the very essence of which appears to be gradation, or inequality.

‘This flattering doctrine once established, its pernicious but inevitable consequences may easily be deduced; confusion, anarchy, lawless broils, and bloody contels for that very superiority, which the system itself rejects. These are the fruits of the benign labours of these friends to the natural rights of mankind; it is thus they teach that all government originates from the people, and these are the blessings they announce by divine appointment!’

Our author, in this Letter, appears to consider the subject of government with a degree of prejudice not easily shaken off by a sound politician, who has in his eye the pernicious effect of those doctrines which tend towards public licentiousness. And, probably for the same reason, we think that he inclines too much to an extinction of that jealousy of the crown, which, though liable to abuse, in a limited monarchy, is nevertheless a salutary principle.

The three remaining Letters relate to a plan of parliamentary reform, on which subject the author delivered his sentiments last year, in ‘A Letter to the Right Hon. William Pitt, upon the Nature of Parliamentary Representation; its Use and Abuse’\*.

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\* See Crit. Rev. vol. lvii. p. 213.

*Memoirs of Baron de Tott. Containing the State of the Turkish Empire and the Crimea, during the late War with Russia. With numerous Anecdotes, Facts, and Observations on the Manners and Customs of the Turks and Tartars. Translated from the French. 2 Vols. 8vo. 10s. in Boards. Robinson.*

WHEN a man of abilities is sent in a public capacity to a country imperfectly known, and during the time of important transactions, his memoirs, when faithfully written, must afford both information and entertainment. Such is the character of the baron de Tott, and such the circumstances in which he appears in the work before us. He long maintained a public station at the Ottoman Porte; and was likewise employed to execute a commission amongst the Tartars, under the auspices of the French ministers, Choiseul and Vergennes. In each of these departments he had many opportunities of making observations on the government and customs of the countries, as well as of becoming acquainted with the views and interests of the men who conducted public affairs. Though almost perpetually involved in business either of a military or political nature, the baron has not been inattentive to the natural history of the countries which he visited; for, in different parts of the Memoirs, we meet with various remarks on this subject.

The baron de Tott appears not only as a man of the world, but as a man of extensive observation, and of a philosophical understanding. Of the latter of these qualities we find an instance in the beginning of the Preliminary Discourse.

‘History, says he, on a first view, seems a theatre of horror, on which victims are presented only to render the names of those executioners illustrious who sacrifice them to gratify their own passions. But it likewise exhibits a most valuable picture of manners; and this part of history, no doubt, must always appear the most interesting, when we consider, that a nation is governed by its customs, as individuals are by their proper characters. Where can we find a more fruitful source for the knowledge and government of men?’

‘For this reason, governors ought to search history. They would perceive that customs, by insensibly modifying and giving birth to manners, are every where the spring of action among mankind; they prepare, they effect the revolution of empires; they furnish materials for the edifice, and render it durable, or undermine and shake it to destruction. It is the silence of evil that conceals its progress; and this fatal progress is not perceived, till the very moment when he who might apply the remedy, receives, himself, an infection which he wants the power to repel.

VOL. LIX. May, 1785.

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‘ If we leave, in the obscurity of time, those banditti, who, like torrents, ravaged the earth and swept away small societies, assuming the pompous title of empires; and if we, likewise, except a few small states, which, after having increased the extent and power of rising Rome, carried its reputation so far as to make distant nations submit to the summons of her heralds, we shall find, that no mighty kingdom has actually sunk under any single attack, from a foreign power: no empire, permanently established, was ever overturned by the loss of a single battle. Greece, enslaved by the Romans, Rome, itself, subjugated by barbarians, have not ceded so much to the power of their conquerors as to their own interior feebleness.

‘ This truth needs no examination. It is, perhaps, the only one perfectly established by history, in its relations of the rise and fall of ancient empires. But, might not an enquiry into the particular manners and customs of any people, serve to throw a light on their history, though no tradition of past transactions had been preserved by themselves? These manners and customs would be as valuable a monument of former events, among such nations, as the Parian marbles have been of the Grecian antiquities. It is only necessary to know how to decypher the characters; and then, in every country, they will supply the place of inscriptions and records. In them we shall find clear indications of the changes which have taken place in preceding ages. That people whose manners are found the least simple, must have experienced the most frequent revolutions; while the nations among whom they seem merely the effect of the physical influence of climate, may be pronounced to have never been conquered.

‘ When we consider that the tyranny of despotism is to be met with in the neighbourhood of the polar circle, as well as under the torrid zone, how can we believe that the manners of a nation can depend alone on climate? If we admit that republicanism has preceded monarchy, whence has it happened that the latter should have entirely effaced all traces of ancient liberty? yet of such revolutions the world is full; they appear to be the true cause of that variety of manners which, at present, render nations so different, as visibly to alter the natural and primitive resemblance of all human societies.’

In this Preliminary Discourse, the baron is at some pains to convince his readers that the information hitherto published concerning the Turks is far from being authentic; and he seems particularly inclined to invalidate the authority of lady Wortley Montague. But we wish to know for what reason the baron bestows on her ladyship’s work, the epithet of ‘ *les prétendues lettres.*’ The following observations relative to this subject, however, we believe to be well founded.

‘ But nothing is more common, when the language of the country visited is not understood, than to imbibe, and spread,  
false

false opinions concerning it, without any intention to deceive, but with the greatest desire to be exact. I have considered what lady Montague relates concerning her janissary, the cadî, and the pigeons; and can discover, in the genius of the Turkish language and nation, what may have deceived her; notwithstanding the literal translation of the janissary's answer, which she might receive from her interpreter. In fact, weary of attempting to procure the pigeons, which, less taken care of in Turkey, are more wild; and, perhaps, roughly treated by the cadî, who might be offended at the trouble given by the ambassador, that soldier may be allowed to have asked her, if she would have him bring her the cadî's head; and if we suppose this question accompanied by an air and accent of impatience; we shall find it convey a greater contempt for the lady than the judge. But this circumstance was not represented to her, by her interpreter, with sufficient fidelity.

‘It is in this manner that travellers, destitute of what is absolutely necessary for them, if they wish to derive instruction from their travels, have propagated a number of absurdities, without having any other fault but the want of a sufficient mistrust of themselves. This judgment ought certainly to appear impartial and moderate.’

It has often been observed that the Turks are extremely precipitate in the burial of their dead; and we find from the baron de Tott, who was amongst this people at the death of Osman, predecessor of Mustapha III. that the funeral of the grand seignior was performed with as much expedition as that of any common inhabitant.

‘Mourning, says he, though in use among the Tartars, is not worn by the Turks; but if this manner of paying respect to our deceased relations be of little consequence, that which certainly is not so, is the haste with which they bury their dead. It seems as if this nation, naturally so grave and phlegmatic, possessed activity in that business alone. They scarcely wait five or six hours, before they perform this last duty to their kindred, and are not prevented by any fear lest those they bury should not be yet actually dead.

‘To this abominable hurry, the Turks who carry the bier add an extreme quickness of pace. The Mahometans believe the deceased to remain in a suffering state till the end of this ceremony.

‘The interment of the grand seignior does not differ from that of others, except in the importance of the great officers who accompany the body to the mosque. Of these it is customary for each emperor to build one; and in the court of the mosque is constructed a cupola, under which the corpse is to be deposited; and it is to be remembered, that the Turkish emperors are buried with the same celerity as their subjects.’

The baron de Tott gives a more unfavourable, but not incredible account of the effects of opium upon the Turks, than we recollect to have met with in any other traveller.

‘ Those among the Turks, who have once given themselves up to the immoderate use of opium, are easily known by a kind of rickets, which this poison never fails to produce at last. Not able to exist agreeably except in this species of intoxication, these persons are particularly objects of curiosity when they are assembled in a part of Constantinople, called Teriaký Tcharchissy, or the Market for the takers of opium.

‘ There, towards evening, the lovers of this drug are seen coming down all the streets which lead to the Solimany; their pale and melancholy figures would be sufficient to raise our pity, did not their lengthened necks, their heads turned on one side, their back bone distorted, their shoulder raised up to their ear, and a number of other extravagant attitudes which result from their disease, exhibit a picture of the most ridiculous nature.

‘ A long row of little shops are built against one of the walls that surround the square, within which is the mosque. These shops are shaded by an arbour which reaches from one to the other, and under which the master takes care to place a little sofa to accommodate his guests, without stopping up the passage. The customers arrive, and place themselves in order, to take the dose which the habits each have contracted render necessary.

‘ The pills are distributed. Those most used to the practice, perhaps swallow four, larger than olives, and each immediately drinking a glass of cold water, waits in his particular attitude. An agreeable reverie, at the end of three quarters of an hour, or an hour at most, never fails to animate these automats; causing them to throw themselves into a thousand different postures, but always extravagant, and always merry. This is the moment when the scene becomes most interesting; all the actors are happy, and each returns home in a state of total irrationality, but likewise in the entire and full enjoyment of happiness not to be procured by reason. Disregarding the ridicule of those they meet, who divert themselves by making them talk absurdly, each imagines, and looks and feels himself possessed of whatever he wishes. The reality of enjoyment often gives less satisfaction.

‘ The same scene is to be found in private houses, where the master sets the example of this strange intemperance. It principally infects the professors of the law; and all the dervises used to intoxicate themselves with opium, till they thought proper to indulge in an excess of wine. There are two kinds of these monks in Turkey, very distinct from each other, and equally remarkable. The difference arises from the difference of the rules imposed on them by their respective founders. That of the



the Mewliach dervises is to turn round like whirligigs, to the sound of soft music, and seek a holy intoxication in the giddiness which must naturally result from this absurd exercise, if the habit of thus turning round did not preserve them from dizziness and drunkenness, which they have recourse to the tavern to complete.

According to our author's account, the distribution of justice in the Turkish dominions is extremely defective; occasioned not only by the constitution of the government, but the corruption of the officers entrusted with the care of the police. We shall exemplify this remark by the practice with respect to the bakers, being a part of the Turkish polity usually represented as extremely severe.

'The bread, brought to the magistrate, is put in the scale against the weight which it ought to weigh, while the baker, already seized, and in the presence of his judge, expects the sentence, by which he is to be acquitted or condemned to the bastinado, if not some punishment more severe; such as having his ear nailed to his shop, or even to be hanged, according to the caprice of his judge. But what is most remarkable is, that the real baker, the proprietor of the oven, he whose knavery should be punished, is not concerned in this affair; he quietly preserves the daily profits of the false weight which incurs punishment, and leaves to one of his journeymen, or the foreman of his shop, all the danger and trouble of this shameful practice; who, for double pay, agrees to represent his master; and this advantageous post is immediately solicited by the next journeyman, when the first gets hanged, for such a trifle discourages no one. But it must be confessed, that punishments of this sort are not so frequently inflicted as they are deserved.

'The compensation which the master bakers pay the stambol effendissi, is considerable; and though this magistrate ought to prevent great abuses, and punish frauds that are clearly proved, it is likewise much his interest to grant them many indulgences, to render certain the tribute which he receives. But he owes no such respect to the higlers about the streets; their weights and scales are taken away, and broken with the hammer, for the least imperfection; and the ceremony is commonly concluded by the bastinado, unless these unfortunate fellows are able to extricate themselves from their embarrassment, as is customary in Turkey.'

In a country where the heat of the climate exposes the inhabitants so much to pestilential disorders, it is surprising to find that Constantinople should be permitted to abound with dogs, that have no owners, and therefore either starve, or support their existence in a manner which must render them particularly liable to madness.

The following extract contains a picturesque description of the life of a Turk.

‘The manner of living of a Turk, sufficiently wealthy to have nothing to do, is to go out, every day, and take his seat in the shop of a dealer in tobacco. There, under pretence of trying the different sorts, he smokes several pipes without paying any thing; and, besides, enjoys the prospect of the passengers; who, on their parts, admire the indolent gravity of the Turk, and the respectful demeanour of two or three servants, who stand by his side, with their hands crossed before them. In this position, the first liver-seller who passes stops, and brags of his ability to bring together all the cats in the neighbourhood; cracks a few jokes to divert his excellency, and obtains permission to begin his operations. The passengers gather round, the cats assemble in a twinkling, at the watch word; the shoulders of the dealer are covered with them, they hang about his clothes, and he makes haste to feast his friends for their alacrity. The important personage, for whose diversion the scene was intended, pays the performance; and the European, who does not understand the language, or understands it but ill, and does not live among the Turks to study their genius and manners, believes he has seen an act of charity, publishes it as such, and only propagates an error.’

On solemn festivals, the taverns in Turkey are shut up, to avoid the effects of the habitual debauchery of the common people. But whilst the officers of the police affix the seal to the door of every tavern, a little wicket is contrived underneath, which they pretend to overlook, and this always affords an easy entrance. Therefore, says the baron, it requires only a little stooping to evade the law, and get drunk unmo-  
lested,

Europeans are so little acquainted with the natural history of Tartary, that part of the author’s account of it may not prove unacceptable to our readers.

‘The meteors which the heavens here continually present, as well as the whiteness of the aurora borealis, prove the purity of the atmosphere. We may also attribute what we may venture to call its ethereal qualities to the immense dry plains, which extend on the north of this country, and to the neighbourhood of Mount Cacaufus; the heights of which attract and absorb all the vapours which rise to the West.’

‘Regular seasons, which gradually succeed each other, contribute, with the goodness of the soil, to produce the most abundant vegetation. The same kind of black land, mixed with sand, extends from Leopold, in Red Russia, as far as the peninsula. The heat of the sun fructifies every kind of grain with very little labour from the husbandman; who does nothing but plough the land he means to sow. Melon-seed, with  
peas

peas and beans mixed, are scattered by a man who follows the plough. They do not even cover the grain, but depend upon the rain to labour for them; and the soil is abandoned to chance till harvest time, when they endeavour to clear the crop of the confusion which this mixture of seed renders inevitable.

Among the numerous spontaneous productions which cover the surface of the Crimea, asparagus, walnuts, and filberts, are distinguished by their size. The abundance of flowers is equally remarkable. Entire fields, covered by the small tulip, form, from the variety of their colours, the most agreeable pictures.

The manner in which the vine is cultivated in the Crimea, serves not to meliorate the quality of the grape, and we see, with regret, that the finest situations in the world cannot determine the inhabitants to prefer them to the vallies. The slips are planted in furrows of eight or ten feet diameter, and four or five deep. The superior part of these ditches serves to sustain the branches, which, thus supported, cover the whole orifice with foliage, under which hang the grapes that, by this means, are hid from the sun: they are likewise abundantly fed by an ever-humid soil; and, moreover, are often covered by the rain-water there collected. They strip off the leaves a month before the vintage, after which they take care to cut the vine near the ground, and the vineyards remain, during winter, under water, owing to the inundation of small rivers, leaving a free field to the aquatic birds.

Among the various species of these birds, which abound in the Crimea, the most remarkable is a kind of wild-goose, with longer legs than ours, and a plumage of a bright brick colour. The Tartars pretend the flesh of this animal is exceedingly dangerous: I tasted it, and only found it exceedingly good-for-nothing.

No country has more quails than the Crimea, and these birds, dispersed during the fine weather, assemble at the approach of autumn, to cross the Black sea over to the southern coast, whence they afterwards transport themselves into hotter climates. The order of this emigration is invariable. Towards the end of August the quails, in a body, chuse one of those serene days when the wind, blowing from the North at sun-set, promises them a fine night. They repair to the strand, take their departure at six or seven in the evening, and have finished a journey of fifty leagues by break of day. Nets are spread on the opposite shore, and hunters waiting for their arrival, to take tythe of the emigrants.

From the account given by our author, we find that the government amongst the Tartars bears a strong resemblance to the feudal system, and in particular, that the meeting of the deliberative branch of the legislature is rendered independent of the executive power.

It appears from the narrative of baron de Tott, that during the last war between the Turks and Russians, the fort of the Dardanelles was in a very defenceless state. From a regard to the future safety of the allies of France, the baron, we think, should not have published this circumstance to the world. The anecdote, however, affords a remarkable instance of those happy escapes which are frequently experienced, in situations of the greatest danger. The baron showed no small degree of activity in supplying this defect; and indeed, without his assistance, it would seem as if the Turks could have made very little resistance against the Russian fleet.

In the island of Candia, our author informs us that there are many appearances of volcanoes, now extinct. Several mountains have their craters; and near Cape Solomon, he observed a small isle, of white marble, partly covered by a bed of lava.

The business of the baron de Tott leads him afterwards to Egypt, concerning the natural history and state of which he gives a distinct and satisfactory account. On the whole, the narrative affords an agreeable mixture of information, political, historical, and descriptive; and, in the present translation of it, the sense of the author is expressed with freedom and fidelity.

*Memoirs of the Baron de Tott, on the Turks and the Tartars, Translated from the French. 2 Vols. 8vo. 10s. in Boards.*  
Jarvis.

**T**HAT two translations of one and the same work should be published almost conjunctly, is an occurrence which at least indicates a favourable opinion of the original. In our account of the preceding translation we have not hesitated to acknowledge the merit of the baron's *Memoirs*; and we have likewise given several specimens of the narrative. It is therefore not only unnecessary, but would be inconsistent with just arrangement, to enlarge on the subject in the present article. For this reason we must content ourselves with laying before our readers, as the fairest object of comparison, what is said by each of the translators with respect to the work.

The following is an extract from the Preface of the present translation.

'The translator of the present work is sensible that he could not have taken a more disadvantageous, or more ungrateful station in the literary world. No merit in the translation of  
living

living languages, can flatter the person who undertakes it, with the hopes of obtaining an adequate recompence for his labours, either in point of interest or ambition ; yet the utility of his occupation is universally admitted, and they who are acquainted with the two languages must acknowledge, because they know, the difficulties he has to surmount, to render the translation tolerable.

‘ To the decision of such judges, the translator submits a work, he was induced to attempt, from motives of utility, and with the view of rescuing an author of great merit and authenticity, from such treatment as he had reason to apprehend from the multitude of inaccurate and mutilated translations from the French, with which the English press is daily teeming. Every Raynal has not the good fortune to fall into the hands of a Justamond. He will only add, on the subject of translation, that it were to be wished, for the facility of that literary commerce which is increasing rapidly between the two first nations in Europe, *tam Marti, quam Mercurio*, that a dictionary might be formed of all the synonymous terms in arts, sciences, natural history, &c. in the two languages, the present dictionaries being so completely inadequate to the purposes of translation, in any of those branches. The extensive and minute knowledge of the baron de Tott, whilst it astonishes the reader, in the course of these Memoirs, will evince the utility, and, the translator fears, the necessity of this remark. It is certain, however, that in works entirely devoted to arts and sciences, the very best translator, without such aid, will find himself involved in insurmountable difficulties, which must necessarily lead to obscurity and confusion. The disuse of Latin in the present age, as the medium of scientific communication throughout Europe, renders such a dictionary particularly necessary for the two rival nations.

‘ With respect to the original work, the translator thinks he may venture to pronounce, with some degree of confidence, that these Memoirs will be at all times justly held in estimation ; that they will furnish entertainment and instruction for the man of the world, and matter of profound meditation for the philosopher and politician. Did they stand in need of any other recommendation than their own intrinsic merit, the illustrious names of a Choiseul and a Vergennes, stand as an unquestionable pledge of the abilities and reputation of the ingenious and distinguished author, whilst the importance and varied objects of his several missions, render all his remarks peculiarly interesting.

‘ A public station at the Ottoman Porte, and amongst the Tartars, under such ministers of a great, as well as well as the most favoured nation in that part of the world ; a nation at all times celebrated too for its discernment and choice of able civil officers and negociators ; a most cultivated understanding and comprehensive knowledge,—a thorough acquaintance with the

language and manners of the Turkish empire for three and twenty years, the peculiar circumstances of the times wherein his abilities were called into exertion, the subsequent, and future probable events, which bid fair, perhaps in our days, to unhinge the whole system of European politics: these are strong, unequivocal recommendations, which fall to the lot of but few authors.'

We shall next subjoin the Advertisement, prefixed to the translation mentioned in the preceding article.

'It may safely be averred, there has seldom appeared a work more difficult to translate than the Memoirs of the Baron de Tott. The talents of the author are as variegated as the incidents of his life; and the numerous arts and sciences he treats of, require no common degree of accuracy. Nor is it sufficient for his translator to be perfectly acquainted with the use and propriety of technical terms, in his own language; if they are not as familiar to him in French as in English, his labour must be immense. To praise ourselves, to depreciate others, and to inform the public of the superiority of our translation, would be to insult the public and degrade ourselves. Readers have the power to compare and the right to judge; we are interested parties, and silence is decency.

'We scarcely need observe, because we imagine our readers will know, that we allude to another translation of the same work. We hold it totally unworthy men of literature to contest with each other. The world is a free market, where each has a right to expose the products of industry, knowledge, or genius to sale: but though rivals for a prize, in which defeat is sometimes glory, the literary character should be that of benignity, quietcent resignation, and universal philanthropy; self-defence alone can excuse contention.

'Such are our opinions, and by such principles shall our conduct be regulated. If we deserye we shall obtain approbation: nor do we think the world holds translations in such contempt, as not to grant it where it is deserved.'

*Reflections on the present Matters in Dispute between Great Britain and Ireland; and on the Means of converting these Articles into mutual Benefits to both Kingdoms. By Josiah Tucker, D. D. Dean of Gloucester. 8vo. 1s. Cadell.*

**H**AVING always received peculiar satisfaction from the writings of this patriotic and intelligent author, we are happy to find him again addressing the public on a matter of so much national concern as the subject of these Reflections. It seems that the dean of Gloucester has taken up the pen on the present occasion for the gratification of some friends; but considering his well-known zeal for the advancement of useful polity,

polity, it is probable, that even unsolicited, he would not have withheld from communicating his sentiments, at a time when deliberations of the highest importance demand every aid which political sagacity can afford. It is certain indeed, as Dr. Tucker himself observes, that one of his former tracts (the first of his Four on Political and Commercial Subjects), is entirely applicable to the arrangements now agitating between Great Britain and Ireland. In the Tract which we have mentioned, he examined the question, whether a rich country can stand in competition with a poor country (of equal natural advantages), in raising of provisions, and cheapness of manufactures? This question he determined in the affirmative; and we join with him in opinion, that the facts and arguments which he there mentioned relative to Scotland, conclude in a much stronger degree with regard to Ireland.

After some introductory observations, the dean considers, under distinct heads, several monopolies which will be opened for the benefit of both kingdoms. The first which he specifies is a free trade to all the countries beyond the Cape of Good Hope. He observes, that as Ireland either has, or soon will have, a free navigation from the Cape of Good Hope to the extremities of China, it is unquestionable that many, perhaps most of the English merchants and manufacturers, who are the most zealous against the Irish bill, will be among the foremost to fit out English ships and cargoes, and to clear and victual from some of the ports of Ireland, to trade under the sanction of the Irish flag. When the goods and raw materials which those vessels will bring from the East, shall be landed in Ireland, the consequences, our author observes, will soon be felt in England.

‘For our monopolizing East India company, says he, will be compelled either to lower their prices on the like articles to an equal standard, or to become bankrupts. And no honest man, no lover of his country, or of mankind, can truly say, that either of these alternatives would be the worst thing that could have happened either to Asia or to Europe.’

The second monopoly to be opened for the benefit of both kingdoms is, a free trade to Egypt, the Levant, &c. We shall lay before our readers the whole of what is advanced by our author on this subject.

‘The same observations which were made relative to the restrictions of the East India company, may be made respecting our English Turkey company, with this only difference, that, whereas the East India company do not so much as pretend to grant a permission to any ships to trade from any port but from the port of London, the Turkey company, when the last struggle was

was made for opening that trade, were obliged to grant a permission of a free trade in words, but took care to clog it with such difficulties as rendered it impracticable in fact. The Irish nation is not bound by any of these restrictive clauses; and though not capable of profiting greatly herself on her own stock, yet she can transfer an entire freedom to any English adventurer (and thereby obtain an intermediate profit to herself), who shall, with a proper assortment of English manufactures, clear out from some Irish port, and hoist the Irish flag. Here, therefore, let it be asked, were this to prove a lucrative branch of commerce, who or which among our most violent anti-Irish patriots would refuse to submit to the indignity of trading under borrowed colours?—Nay, who, or which of our English merchants, or manufacturers, made any scruple of doing the like, when the prospect of gain was before their eyes? The writer of this paper long ago foretold, that the English and American traders would soon be reconciled to each other, notwithstanding their violent and hostile declarations, when self-interest became the load-stone of attraction. His opinion was then treated as a foolish paradox: the mercantile people, almost to a man, were pleased to scout at it; but the event has shewn, that he was not such a dreamer, or so wild in his conjectures, as they imagined him to be.

The consequences mentioned by Dr. Tucker in the foregoing quotation, are undoubtedly extremely probable. But if Ireland may thus carry on a trade injurious to the revenue of Great Britain, it thence follows, in equity, that the former ought to compensate for this, as well as for her naval protection, by such a pecuniary aid towards the expences of government, as should not depend entirely upon the liberality of the Irish parliament.

The third monopoly to be opened for the benefit of both kingdoms; will be, says the dean, a free importation of sugars, and other products of warmer climates, from the *cheapest* market, wherever it can be found: by which means a foundation will be laid for the gradual abolition of the present inhuman slave trade. The earnestness with which Dr. Tucker argues for the extinction of slavery in our West India islands, is worthy of his humanity; and if any thing else than an act of the legislature can produce that effect, we are of opinion that it will be the circumstances which he mentions. He observes that the sugars, and other produce of the British planters, are much dearer than those of any other nation; notwithstanding that our planters have many advantages in the purchase of their negroes, of their boilers, their mills, and of various utensils, which others have not. That whilst the common price of sugars in the British islands, in time of peace,



is generally about twenty-five shillings sterling the cwt. that of the French is about sixteen shillings; that of the Portuguese about twelve shillings; and that of the East Indies, according to information, no more than two shillings and six pence.

Now, says Dr. Tucker, though the inhabitants of Great Britain are tied down at present to such exorbitant prices, as the monopolising planter or his agent shall be pleased to extort from them; the inhabitants of Ireland are totally free, and may at any time resort to the cheapest market: consequently, by a judicious use and application of this freedom, they may become the means, not only of emancipating the unhappy natives of Guinea from their present galling yoke (though, I own, by slow and imperceptible degrees), but may also convince mankind in general of the momentous truth, not yet thoroughly understood, that of all monopolies, slavery is the most prejudicial to the true interests of a trading nation.

Suppose, therefore, that ships were fitted out from Cork or Waterford, or from any other Irish port, with cargoes of English manufactures (because the English are by far the best and cheapest that can be got, and may be procured on the longest credit), and properly sorted for the French, Spanish, Portuguese, Danish, or Dutch plantations; or indeed for any of the newly erected free ports in those seas; in that case, is there a doubt to be made, but that the English merchants and manufacturers, with their large capitals, would be the principal adventurers? and can you imagine that the difference in the respective prices between 25s. 16s. and 12s. per cwt. would not be a strong temptation to them to make the trial? not to mention the additional circumstance arising from the greater profits to be made on the sale of the manufactures or outsets, when sent to these new markets.

But this is not all: for if the sugars raised by slaves in the French, and other islands, where slavery is of the milder kind, are much cheaper than those which are raised in our English plantations, the sugars which freemen cultivate in the East Indies (working on their own account), are by far the cheapest of all. An evident proof this, that the cheapness of manufactures is to be obtained by freedom only, and not by the chains and fetters, stripes and lashes, of the labourers employed therein!

Now, laying all these circumstances together, no man can be so blind, but he must see, that the principles of morality, and of national commerce, agree in this respect in perfect harmony; and therefore, that in proportion as such systems of freedom, and of humanity, shall gain ground, in the same proportion will every planter, or sugar grower, be compelled, by the necessity of the case, to lighten the yoke from off the necks of his slaves, and to emancipate them by little and little, till at last a general revolution will ensue (as was, N. B. formerly the case here in England), and slavery be no more.

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Our author confirms his doctrine by insisting on the powerful influence of self-interest on the minds of men. As rice, cotton, indigo, and other articles of great value, may be raised with very little trouble in those parts of Africa whence the slaves are usually imported, he observes that hardly any thing more is requisite for the abolition of slavery, than to point out to the inhabitants of those regions the circumstances in which their own advantage and commercial interest consist. To prove to them by obvious facts, that they will get more by manufacturing the sugar-cane at home, and by raising rice, indigo, cotton, cochineal, &c. on their lands, than they can receive by trucking for their own flesh and blood, their sons and their daughters, or by making wars on their innocent neighbours, to procure prisoners, whom they may sell for slaves, some thousands of miles from their native homes.

The fourth monopoly to be opened for the benefit of both kingdoms will be, according to our author, a free navigation, exempted from those clogs and restrictions which are required by the act of navigation. Dr. Tucker observes that national prejudices are strongly in favour of the act of navigation; but he contends, that this celebrated monopoly cannot be vindicated on the footing of commercial utility. To determine this important question, he considers two points. One is, whether it can be for the benefit of the public, that the landed and trading interests should be circumscribed by a monopoly in the freight, carriage, or transport of their own goods and merchandize? The other is, whether the argument usually adduced for making this sacrifice, namely, that it increases the breed of seamen, has a foundation in fact, or can be warranted by experience? Concerning an act of so great importance, and which, if founded in bad policy, must prove extremely pernicious to the nation, we shall present our readers with the remarks of this ingenious author.

‘Now, respecting the first inquiry, if any doubt can be started on this head, it must be this, that mankind in general have not the same sense to judge of what is, or is not, for their own immediate advantage, in this case, as they have in all others; and therefore ought to be subject to the restraints of tutors and guardians, to prescribe terms for the regulation of their conduct. But as this is a proposition too glaringly false, and too absurd to be seriously maintained, recourse must therefore be had to the second point, namely, that the great body of the people must be abridged of their natural rights and liberties of employing whomsoever they please, for the sake of keeping up, and increasing the number of sailors to man our navy. Now, this is the first instance which occurs in history, of monopolies and restraints being judged to be a proper mode  
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of multiplying the number of persons employed in the conduct and execution of them. The usual train of reasoning hath been quite the reverse: however, to give the matter a fair hearing, let us try the effects of the present monopoly, in a case of which every man is a competent judge, and which is exactly parallel to this before us.

A merchant-ship is nothing more than a sea-waggon for the exportation and importation of its lading; the use of which is correspondent to the carriage or re-carriage of goods by land-waggons. Or, to come still closer to the point, it answers the idea of the freight, both forwards and backwards, of wares and merchandize sent along our navigable rivers, and inland canals. Now, can any man be so lost to common sense, as to maintain, that were exclusive patents to be granted either to our waggons by land, or to our barges and trows by water, this would be a means of multiplying the number of those who should be employed on either element? And yet this he must maintain, and prove likewise, before he can justify the act of navigation, as a proper measure for increasing the breed of sailors. The only rational and effectual method of increasing the numbers to be employed either by land or water, is to increase the quantity of produce, of raw materials, and of all kinds of bulky manufactures, which require to be conveyed from place to place. For these will of course create a demand for more waggons, more trows, barges, and vessels for the carriage or transportation of them, than otherwise would have been necessary. Whereas, to begin with schemes to increase the number of waggons or quantity of shipping, without having a prior regard, or without giving due encouragement to increase the quantity of goods to be carried, is surely to begin at the wrong end; and, as the old proverb expresses it, to put the cart before the horse. In fact, every thing in trade ought to be left to find its own level; and no monopoly, or exclusive privilege, ought to be granted to one set of traders in preference to another. When the sea-carrier finds that he is encouraged, and, as it were, exhorted by means of an exclusive privilege, to raise his price of freight, as having no rivals to contend with, can it be supposed that he will not avail himself of this circumstance? Or, is there an instance to be produced of any number of men, when knit together, and united by a legal monopoly, who sacrificed their own interest to that of the public? whereas emulation between rival carriers, rival merchants, and rival manufacturers of every sort and kind, operates by a ratio just the reverse. The price of freight, of goods, merchandize, labour, wages, and provisions, is then reduced to its just standard. And every individual, by striving to outdo his neighbour, and to get the most custom, serves the public by his endeavours to serve himself. This has ever been the fact, and ever will be, according to the reason and nature of things. Now, as far as the increase of shipping, and consequently of

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sailors,

sailors, is concerned, one example, and a striking one it is, may serve instead of a thousand. Since the peace has been concluded with America, our trade between Great Britain and the American continent hath greatly increased. And what hath been the consequence? More English shipping, and larger ships (I say English, not American), have been employed in that service, than ever were employed during the same space of time before. Now, this I aver has been the fact, notwithstanding the act of navigation itself has been superseded in favour of these revolted colonies; and every indulgence hath been shewn to them, which hath been hitherto denied to other nations, though they most certainly have a better claim.

‘However, an opening is now made: and in the present enlightened state of things, such an affair as this cannot recede, but must go forward. Other nations will think themselves extremely ill-used (and with great justice) unless they, our friends and best customers, shall be put on an equal footing with the Americans, so lately our bitterest enemies, and at present far, very far from being our most punctual paymasters, or best customers.

‘But above all, the independence of Ireland will necessarily give a coup de grace to this injurious monopoly; as well as to several others. The Irish are not bound by our act of navigation, or by any other of our restraining laws. They are therefore at full liberty to employ what shipping they may find the most conducive to their own interest; and the English adventurers, who will have the chief share in the fitting out of such ships and cargoes, will rejoice to find, that they enjoy that liberty in the ports of Ireland, which is denied to them in their own. At last, indeed, the English legislature itself will grow wiser by experience, and learn, from the example before their eyes, that trade ought not to be circumscribed, and that the best and surest means of encouraging the breed of sailors, is to encourage the cheapness of freight, and to promote rivalry and emulation among all ranks and classes in society, more especially among the commercial.’

The fifth monopoly, mentioned by our author, to be opened for the benefit of both kingdoms, will consist in the free exportation and importation of grain. No part of the British polity has been more freely censured than the regulations enacted by the legislature respecting this subject. The reverend author, whose Reflections lie before us, reduces the question within clear and narrow bounds; and a view of it therefore, we are persuaded, will not be unacceptable to our readers.

‘When men set out wrong in any scheme, the farther they proceed, the more distant they are from the right course. This hath been remarkably verified in the regulations, which have obtained the consent of the legislature respecting the exportation and importation of corn.

‘Corn

‘Corn is a raw material, in the most extensive sense of the word. Consequently every encouragement which ought to be given for increasing the quantity of any material, the most necessary and useful, and for which there is a never-ceasing demand, ought to be given to the growth of corn at home, and for the importation of it from abroad.

‘The most proper method for the encouraging the growth of corn at home, is to multiply the number of inhabitants and eaters of bread. The most effectual way of doing this, is to render the means of subsistence so easy and comfortable, that the common people may not find the weight of an increasing family a burden too heavy for them to bear. Population will then be the necessary consequence. This is the order of Providence. The proper method for encouraging the importation of corn from abroad, is to admit the unconditional importation of it at all times and seasons, without any restraint or limitation whatsoever.

‘But corn is not only a raw material, the increase whereof is in that sense, and on that account to be encouraged, but it is also a material of a perishable nature, which daily grows worse by keeping. Therefore it ought to be exported, whilst it remains good and wholesome; otherwise the vender will be a great loser, and the eater of such bread, if he can eat it, will be materially injured.

‘For these reasons, were there no others, it is very evident that the exportation of corn ought never to be restrained, unless under such an unhappy and uncommon circumstance, where crops have failed in every other country, and a general famine is likely to ensue. As to the importation of it, it is absurd to suppose that any raw material, and more especially the most momentous of all others, should be prohibited from being brought in, and the uses of it restrained, for the sake of enriching a few monopolizers.’

From the tenor of our author's Reflections, it is evident that he is, upon the whole, a zealous friend to the success of the Irish propositions, which, if passed into a law, he seems to be convinced will operate greatly to the advantage of both kingdoms. Were his approbation founded only in the liberality of the measure, there might be room to question the policy which he labours so strenuously to recommend. But, for our own part, we must acknowledge that, though he has not had recourse to the detail of investigation, which in some points may be expedient and necessary; yet his general arguments in favour of the probable consequences of the measure proposed, are both so well established and forcible, that they cannot but tend to dissipate the apprehensions which are entertained with regard to this interesting subject.

*The Present State of the Manufacture of Salt explained, &c.  
By the Earl of Dundonald. 8vo., 2s. Cadell.*

**T**HOUGH the present age be none of the most distinguished for the encouragement of learning or genius, we have, in the course of our periodical examinations, occasionally had the pleasure to meet with the productions of a few noblemen, in the walks of literature, polity, and commerce; but it is an extraordinary occurrence to find an author of high rank amongst the improvers of any species of manufacture. An instance of this honourable distinction however is the earl of Dundonald, who, in the treatise now before us, displays so much useful observation, and such a degree of chemical knowledge, relative to the manufacture of salt, as is likely to be rendered of important advantage to the nation.

His lordship sets out with a recital of particulars respecting the subject. He informs us, that there were formerly upwards of two hundred salt-pans at North and South Shields; but that the number is at present reduced to twenty. That the decrease of the salt manufacture on the east coast is owing to the superior advantages of making salt, by the assistance of the sun, on the south coast, and the making it from rock-salt on the west; and that the places whence London is chiefly supplied with salt, are Lymington and Liverpool.

We are next informed, that at Lymington the sea-water is let into shallow ponds or reservoirs, where it evaporates to a certain degree. That it is afterwards boiled down in pans, with coals procured from Newcastle and Sunderland; which coals pay a duty of 5s. 4 $\frac{7}{8}$ d. per chaldre: so that the salt made at Lymington may be said to pay duty twice; first, on the coals used in making the salt; and, secondly, on the salt when made.

Lord Dundonald farther informs us, that at Liverpool, which is a principal place for the manufacture and export of salt made from rock-salt, the last mentioned salt is dissolved in sea-water, making with it the strongest possible brine or solution of sea-salt. When the brine has deposited the impurities of the rock-salt, it is boiled down in pans, in much the same manner as at Lymington.

The vein or stratum of rock-salt hitherto discovered, is near Norwich in Cheshire, and is upwards of fifty feet in thickness. But, from salt springs being so common in different parts of that country, there is reason to believe that this stratum is of great extent, and will, for ages, furnish a supply of that valuable article to the inhabitants of this island.

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But the refining of rock-salt being restricted by some acts of parliament, specified by the earl of Dundonald, the consequence is, that the whole of Scotland, and every part in England, except the few places mentioned in those acts, are excluded from the benefit of using and refining the valuable raw material of rock-salt; at the same time that the exportation of rock-salt to foreign countries, and to every port in Ireland, is permitted.

Our author observes, that many places in England and Scotland, besides being deprived of the benefit of rock-salt, suffer additional disadvantages in their manufactory of salt, from the high duties which they are obliged to pay for coals carried coastways; and that, in consequence of the great inequality of the duty on coals so carried along the coast of Great Britain, and of those exported to Ireland, a great quantity of rock-salt, refined in Ireland, is thence smuggled to the west coast of England and Scotland; where, from the superior duties on coal carried coastways, and from being denied the benefit of the raw material of rock-salt, the fair trader in salt cannot afford the commodity near so cheap as it can be had by means of the illicit trade from Ireland.

In making these observations, the earl of Dundonald totally disclaims the view of suggesting any additional duties on coal exported to Ireland, or any restrictions upon the exportation of rock-salt, for the benefit of the inhabitants of that country. On the contrary, he declares himself a warm friend to the operation of every liberal principle in the arrangements between Great Britain and Ireland. His lordship only complains that the inhabitants of Great Britain should be subjected to such a distressing duty on coals carried coastways; and that they are so much restricted, and in many parts of the island entirely excluded from the benefit of the raw material of rock-salt.

We shall present our readers with the statement made by his lordship, of the quantity of salt yielded by the sea-water in the Frith of Forth, and of the comparative prices of salt there and at Liverpool.

Sea-water on the Frith of Forth yields, on an average of the year,  $\frac{1}{35}$  of salt; 100 tons, therefore, contain

	Tons.	Cwt.	Qrs.	Lbs.
Of salt	2	17	0	16
Of water	97	2	3	12

A hundred tons of saturated solution of rock-salt in sea-water, contain

	Tons.	Cwt.	Qrs.	Lbs.
Of salt	23	0	1	20
Of water	76	19	2	8

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'The improper expenditure of fuel in making salt from sea-water, without the aid of rock-salt, cannot be more fully shown than by the above states. By the former, upwards of 97 tons of water must be evaporated to procure 2 tons 17 cwt. of salt, equal to 114 bushels; by the latter 77 tons of water nearly, to obtain 24 tons, equal to 920 bushels of salt; a quantity (with 20 tons less evaporation) eight times greater than is procured from sea-water.

'From the above facts it may safely be concluded, that, to procure the same quantity of salt from sea-water as from salt brine, it will require eight times the fuel, and eight times the labour;—an object of less importance to the salt manufacturers than to the country in general, which ultimately pays, by an advanced price on salt, for the extra charge of manufacture.

'The selling price of salt at Liverpool and on the Forth (exclusive of duties), confirms what is above stated.

At Liverpool, the best salt sells at	per bushel.
	8d.
Small salt	6d.

On the Forth, the average price is 15d.

'The expence of manufacture on the Forth stands near 11d. per bushel; and the salt-makers at Liverpool, who use rock-salt, have as much profit by selling their salt at 8d. as those on the Forth at 45d.

'The heavy duties already laid on this necessary of life render it an object of moment to the country in general, more especially to the poorer sort of people, that the cheapest mode of manufacture should be adopted. The importation, therefore, of rock-salt, under certain restrictions, should be allowed into all the ports of Great Britain where the manufacture of salt is carried on. Objections may be started, "that the revenue would suffer thereby, viz. either by the rock-salt being made use of in its crude state, or by the strong brine being carried away, or disposed of from the salt-works."

'To the first of these it is a sufficient answer, that rock-salt contains so many impurities, particularly of a red clay or earthy matter, that it could not be made use of for household purposes, or the salting of meat; and, could it even be made use of, its colour, its size when whole, and its unformed grains or particles when broken or pounded, will afford an easy method of detection.

'The last objection, "that salt brine would be secreted or carried away from the works," militates equally against the present mode of making salt from sea-water; because, in either case, salt must be in a liquid ere it can be in a solid state. As the law stands at present, the penalty for disposing of, or taking away the brine is very great. Besides, watchmen attend the salt-pans night and day; and, if it should be thought farther necessary, the pump that draws up the brine from the reservoir



servoir or pit, in which the rock-salt is dissolved by the seawater, may be under the lock and key of the salt-officer, who shall be obliged to attend when the pans are filled.'

Lord Dundonald next proceeds to shew, in the most satisfactory manner, how home-made salt may, at a small expence, be purified, or rendered of equal or superior quality to bay or foreign salt, for the purpose of curing fish, and salting of meat and butter; and likewise how such purified salt may be made a staple article of trade and export from this kingdom.

Without reciting the method described by the noble author for the purifying of salt, we shall only join him in observing, that the simplicity of the process, and its cheapness, as it can be done for less than 1½d. per bushel, will, it is hoped, recommend it to the attention of the legislature; and the practice of it, as his lordship suggests, ought to be enforced by act of parliament at all the salt-works throughout Great Britain.

Lord Dundonald, after evincing the improvements which may be made in the manufacture of salt, and the commercial advantages to be derived from them, submits to the public consideration some propositions of a different nature; which, if adopted by the legislature, could not fail to produce an extension of the trade of Great Britain, at the same time that they would extinguish the smuggling trade in the article of salt. The propositions which his lordship suggests relate to a plan for abolishing the present duties and restrictions on the manufacture of salt, and for substituting other duties, less burthensome to the subjects, more beneficial to the revenue, and better calculated for the advancement of commerce.

We should greatly exceed the bounds of our Review, did we relate minutely what is suggested by lord Dundonald on this subject. It may be sufficient to inform our readers, that his lordship displays a great fund of pertinent and judicious observation, drawn not only from domestic sources, but from the polity of France, with which, respecting the article of salt, he appears to be intimately acquainted. We shall however lay before them the noble author's proposition relative to a commutation tax, for supplying the deficiencies of the public revenue, which would arise from the abolition of the duty on salt.

On this subject it must be confessed, that in countries where, from the exigencies of the state, all sources of taxation have been so much ransacked as in Great Britain and France, it is much more easy to point out, and to render palpable, the hardships and inconveniencies of any specific tax, than to suggest another tax for replacing it, free from the same or similar objections, or at least from objections which, though of a dif-

ferent nature, might not, by some, be deemed of equal weight with those attending the tax proposed to be suppressed.

All that can be hoped for in matters of this sort is, the choice of a tax liable to the fewest objections; and such as, upon a fair investigation of impartial men, will be found less burthensome to the subjects, and more beneficial to the state, than the tax in the room of which it is meant to be substituted.

In the application of this rule to the present subject, there are some requisites which ought to attend any commutation tax to be proposed for replacing the duties on salt.

It ought, in the first place, to be a tax which, as nearly as possible, would be equally extensive with that meant to be abolished, embracing all the same classes in the community who were liable in payment of the first tax, and affecting them nearly in the same proportions, according to their different rank and circumstances.

Secondly, it ought to be a tax attended with less charges of collection and management, and less liable to frauds and abuses, by the temptations to illicit trade.

Those who are entrusted with the administration of the finances of this country, must, from their situation, and from various channels of information open to them, be presumed best qualified to discover a commutation tax corresponding to these requisites; but there can be no impropriety, or presumption, in an individual submitting to the consideration of ministers, or of the public at large, such ideas, as, from his more limited sources of information, may have occurred to him on the subject; when his motives for doing so are founded on a sincere desire to take even the chance of suggesting any thing that may be of utility to the public.

With this apology for the following suggestions, the author will now beg leave to state his opinion: that, after weighing the objections to additional taxes on articles of consumption already severely taxed, and the objections also to increasing the taxes upon land, windows, servants, horses, &c. it has appeared to him, that the revival of a tax, formerly known in this country, during great part of the reign of Charles the Second, and down to the time of king William, the tax upon hearths, would, in many respects, be well calculated to supply the place of a tax so universally diffused as that upon salt.

A tax upon hearths would certainly be qualified to answer the most material of the requisites before mentioned; for no person could be subjected to this tax upon hearths, who had not been a contributor, or liable to the tax on salt; and, at the same time, few of those who had been liable to the duties on salt, would escape the duty on hearths. In this country, a hearth to a house may be considered to be as much a necessary of life as the use of salt; therefore a tax on hearths, like that on salt, would extend to all the classes of the community; and this is a material consideration for making a tax productive.

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We cannot conclude our account of this production without observing, to the honour of lord Dundonald, that he has freely communicated to the public the result of his labours and experiments relative to the manufacture of salt, though he had been frequently advised by his friends to secure to himself, by patent, the exclusive benefit of his invention; or to render it public only on the condition of obtaining a parliamentary reward. Such liberality and patriotism reflects additional lustre to that which he derives from his uncommon industry in the pursuit of useful science, and of national benefit.

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*Account of the Qualities and Uses of Coal Tar and Coal Varnish.*  
8vo. 1s. Wilkie.

THE earl of Dundonald appears to have a happy talent for the prosecution of such natural researches as may be rendered of public utility. Of his improvements in the manufacture of salt, we have given an account in the preceding article; and his lordship is yet more conspicuous for the new and easy method which he discovered a few years since, of extracting tar from coal. Many trials for this purpose, we are informed, had been made by the late marquis of Rockingham, near Sheffield, and by various persons at Colebrook-dale, and at Newcastle. But the quantity obtained by those different attempts was trifling, and the expence of the process so great, that the tar could not be afforded by the manufacturers under twenty-eight shillings *per* barrel. According to the earl of Dundonald's method, however, both the coal-tar and the coal-varnish may be supplied at reasonable prices.

The superiority of coal-tar to the common tar, is evident from a variety of particulars. It is of a blacker colour than common tar, and entirely free from water; of which, in the latter, there is a considerable quantity. It requires no mixture of lamp-black for doing the mast-heads, yards, timber-heads, and blacking strokes of ships. It lays on smoother, with a finer skin, and better gloss than common tar. Vessels bottomed payed with it keep a longer time clean; an equal quantity of coal-tar covers one-third superficies more than foreign tar; and worms will not penetrate into wood that has been properly impregnated and payed with it.

Coal-varnish is made of rosin, dissolved in essential oil of coal, and is preferable to that made of turpentine. When coal-varnish is laid on wood, its effects are to close the pores, by filling them with the rosin contained in it; rendering, by this artificial impregnation, white, or sap-wood, equal in

quality to red wood. Coal-varnish is recommended for mixing with colours to make varnish paints; as it nourishes and preserves wood better than paint prepared with lint-seed oil. When rectified, it may be used to advantage in painting, to dilute, or thin down lint-seed oil; and for this use, it goes one-third farther than oil of turpentine. Near forty different articles, both of wood-work and iron-work, are enumerated, for which the coal-tar and varnish are principally adapted. Amongst the former are ships bottoms, sides, and various other parts; palisades; cart and waggon wheels, &c. Amongst the latter are ships rudder-bands, chain-plates, bolts, guns, shot, &c.

The certificates ascertaining the various advantages of coal-tar, in respect not only of cheapness, but of facility of application, and of its extraordinary and durable effects, are so ample and numerous, that they afford the most satisfactory evidence in its favour. In a word, this discovery, which includes likewise several other articles, employed in different manufactures, such as lamp-black, volatile alkali, sal ammoniac, Glauber's salt, and fossil alkali, or barilla, must prove of great advantage to the public; and the earl of Dundonald, for the industry, the spirit, and vigour, with which he has prosecuted so useful an invention, merits not only the patent which he has obtained, but the thanks of his country.

*The Claims of the Public on the Minister, and the Servants of the Public, stated. By John Earl of Stair. 8vo. 1s. Stockdale.*

**T**HE earl of Stair has for several years been in the habit of watching the most essential interests of the nation, and of expostulating with ministers on their public conduct. In the discharge of both these offices, we have always considered his lordship as actuated, not by any capricious spirit of opposition to government, but by an anxious concern for the safety of the state, and by the dictates of an understanding strong and penetrating, though perhaps too deeply impressed with apprehensions respecting the financial resources of this country. His lordship sets out with observing, that notwithstanding some time has elapsed since the auspicious change which was to have given a prosperous stability to the affairs of the nation, yet the great months have not begun to run; the hours of peace are still lost in idle declamations, or in altercations unprofitable to the public. That there is too much foundation for this remark, we must acknowledge with regret; but we cannot help being of opinion, that his lordship's observation implies

implies an apology for the slow amelioration of public affairs.

The *Saturnia regna*, we fear, must return, before the great months begin to run. But if a prospect, lately opened to the public view, should happily be realized, the commencement of halcyon days may yet be an event not improbable.

With regard to the conduct more immediately in the power of ministers, lord Stair has expressed himself in the following terms.

‘ In any thing that has yet been offered to the public view by the present administration, the hand of the great master does not appear; the design is hackneyed and vulgar, and the execution harsh and unpleasing. So far from shewing a firmness of mind, and a fertility of resource equal to every difficulty, they have not hitherto had even the courage to lay before the public a fair state of their real situation. To hold power and official pre-eminence, without being able to make the due returns of duty and service to the public, are terms mean and ignoble; principles to which no better objects may be assigned, than the self-interested gratifications that flow from the emoluments of place, and its wrecked constant appendages, the official undistinguishing flatteries of the subalterns of place and power, and the unblushing adulations of hungry expectants. The great marked feature in the late change, the substitution of peerage for place and pension, has been far from advantageous, either to the crown or people. By forcing the crown to use too prodigally its brightest prerogative, that of creating peers, the just and noble ambition of deserving hereditary honours, by great services and sacrifices to the state, has been weakened. Distinctions that every wise government should make only open and attainable by merit and virtue, have been, if not prostituted, at least used to promote, strengthen, and retain private, partial, and factious interests and influences. Place and pension pass away; but here hereditary duns, hereditary claimants on the royal munificence, which must be satisfied, have been established and substituted; for in the fluctuating variations of sublunary matters, present prosperity is little to be relied on; and those who do not want for themselves, have ever needy friends and relations to provide for, all which must ultimately come out of, and drain the public purse, whilst the crown purchases a short interval of precarious tranquillity, at probably the expence of a long and bitter repentance. Favour, that cannot be resumed are soon forgotten, and too often, in the restless, unprincipled fluctuation of parties in this country, are even turned against the beneficent hand that conferred them.’

To what particular objects his lordship alludes, in the sequel of his observations, we shall not take upon us to determine. But that he means to prompt the minister to vigorous measures, is too obvious to be questioned.

— I could have wished, and indeed still wish and expect, that our young minister has not embarked on the tempestuous sea of his public administration, without some plan and chart of his own to guide his course by; but should the youthful ardour to possess, have thrown into oblivion the means of holding power, with credit to himself, and advantage to the public, I think (though somewhat stale and out of date) his claims of assistance from the great bodies, who by their addresses, and proffered lives and fortunes, so loudly called him forth, are still in force; yet if not prescribed, they grow less strong, by every hour of timid procrastination. Let him then boldly demand from the addressers, the necessary pledged and promised aids his country wants: if their general voice is cold, the infamy is theirs, not his; he may then quit with dignity a station, the false unsubstantial professions of his friends prevent him from holding with honour:

*“Quam si non tenuit, magnis tamen excidit ausis.”*

Which is the best excuse for every kind of temerity; and should he chuse to continue in place, he will at least have given some manifestation and proof to the public, of his sensibility to what he owes to his country and situation: I am not his enemy. On the contrary, I am his friend, the friend to his fair fame, and wish to mark out to him the narrow path, the up-hill, self-denying track, that leads to glory. What I write are the pure dictates of impartial reason and truth; at least they appear so to me. I do not wish for any new changes; I do not like changes in administration; they have generally been for the worse, and always at the expence of the purse of the people, or at that of the constitution, one or both. I must indeed except the one that brought the late earl of Chatham into power; but even there, there arises a certain bitterness, which makes harsh the sweets of glory and success. Our triumphs were bought at the price of a necessary perpetual future adherence to peace. A lesson of eternal moderation was left us by our great minister, but, alas! ill observed by his successors, though the necessity was obvious and conclusive; for the excess of the real permanent incomes of this country, during eleven years of peace and prosperity, that followed the conclusion of a glorious and successful war, did not amount, all fairly balanced and stated, to quite four millions; of which above one million arose from a most pernicious source, continued annual lotteries; and this under the conduct of a variety of administrations, all striving to recommend themselves to the public by economy.

The earl of Stair afterwards prosecutes his allegations relative to our national finances, which he still maintains to be in a declining state. Whatever may be the issue of the public debt, we beg leave to claim, as some consolation, the honour which his lordship offers to a particular class in the community, ‘let us in the mean time smoke the calumet, the pipe of peace together.’

*An Answer to the Reply to the supposed Treasury Pamphlet.* 8vo.  
2s. Stockdale.

THE pamphlet entitled, 'The proposed System of Trade with Ireland explained,' was, by the author of the Reply, ascribed to the secretary of the Treasury; and the Answer now before us is no less confidently affirmed to be the production of the late paymaster-general; concerning whom, we meet with the following sarcastic observations in the introductory part of the present pamphlet.

'It was, doubtless, very wrong not to ask the sage counsels of the right honourable author of the Reply: much might have been learned from a legislator, whose laws defeat their own execution; from an orator, who has spoken, till he is no longer heard; from a placeman, who gained such credit by restoring officers, who had been convicted of peculation; from a reformer who has reformed kitchens till the reform of the constitution is neglected. And our very consistent commentator, whose speeches and pamphlets against lord North's measures are still remembered, had been spared the blush of declaring "how happy it had been for the peace of the empire, if the war, temperate, and cautious proceedings of lord North's days had been imitated by the present administration."

In a controversy respecting the Irish propositions, we wish to gratify the curiosity of our political readers; but, by the multiplicity of arguments and elucidations, this Answer is rendered of such a length, that a minute account of it would necessarily fill many pages. We must therefore be content with selecting a few of the most conspicuous passages, as specimens of the production.

It had been said by the author of the Reply, 'that ignorance and incapacity have delivered over to Ireland the whole trade of Great Britain, without stipulating any equivalent in return.' On this assertion the author of the Answer makes the following observations.

'He proves this incredible charge, by stating, that we send goods amounting to 10,000,000l. a year duty-free to Ireland; and receive annually no less than the value of 2,000,000l. duty-free in return. Whether the right honourable gentleman adopted his very candid objection from the newspapers, or the newspapers received it from him, is a question which does not deserve much consideration. One truth is clear, that the whole strain, sentiment, and even language, of our commentator, may be evidently traced in paragraphs in the newspapers, and in essays, which have been diligently circulated through the kingdom.

Let us, however, state the fact before we examine the objection. The value of the whole produce of Ireland which was sent

sent to England, according to a three years average, ending with 1783, as stated by the Irish custom-house, amounted to £.2,272,645

which included the three great articles of provisions, raw materials, and linen, imported duty free.

Of provisions.			
Bullocks	—	952	£. 4,760
Hogs	—	229	229
Beef	—	80,018 bar.	102,691
Tongues	—	1,129 doz.	677
Butter	—	131,436 cwt.	262,872
Pork	—	55,376 bar.	73,064
Hams	—	299 cwt.	450
Flitches	—	1,942	485
Hogs-lard	—	2,688 cwt.	4,032
Fish	—	—	968

Total of provisions — — £.350,228

Of raw materials.			
Wool-sheeps	—	2,044 stones	£. 1,022
Yarn	Cotton	—	176
	Linen	—	198,376
	Woollen	—	123
	Worsted	—	110,678
Tallow	—	35,382 cwt.	70,764
Hides untanned	—	83,521 N <sup>o</sup>	111,361

Total of raw materials — — £.492,590

Of linen cloth.			
Cambricks	—	135 yards	£. 38
Plain	—	18,108,958 yards	1,207,263
Coloured	—	256 yards	20

Total of linen cloth — — £.1,207,263

The value of the Irish cargo being thus £.2,272,645

The value of articles imported duty free being 2,050,049

The value of Irish duty goods must therefore be 222,596

I have in this manner placed our author's facts in as strong a light as he could wish. Yet, when the particulars are attended to, what do they prove? nothing against our existing laws, and little against the proposed arrangements.

The author of the Reply had challenged the supposed secretary to point out what article of manufacture the Irish buy in Britain, which they can get cheaper in any other country. To this it is answered,

4 Ma.



‘Manufactured silk is one article, and woollen cloth another. The Irish parliament have imposed a duty of 3*l.* 15*s.* 12*d.* per pound weight on wrought silks imported, except from Great Britain. And wrought silk might be imported cheaper from Italy and France; woollen cloths we have already shewn are excluded by prohibitory duties; and 10 per cent. has lately been laid on various commodities not imported from Britain. Thus our commentator’s confidence leads to that conviction of his own ignorance, which he laboured to fix on the objects of his envy.’

On the subject of woollens, the following extract seems entitled to attention.

‘It is unnecessary to litigate a point, which has been already decided by the proper judges. The manufacturers of Norwich, of Yorkshire, and Wilts, declared to the committee of council, with a commendable spirit of candour and liberality, that they were under no apprehensions of the competition of the Irish in the home market, while they themselves were allowed the exclusive manufacture of the raw material, as they had always been:—that, as to foreign markets, it would ill become them, even by their wishes, to deprive fellow-subjects of natural advantages. The woollen manufacturers have since considered the proposed arrangements: and they have again declared, that their interests cannot be materially affected by the competition of the manufactured goods; while the advantage of the raw material will remain solely to Great Britain. But our commentator, with his accustomed decency, censures their reasons “as absurd”—and condemns their conduct, “as allowing party to outweigh self-interest.” Few men argue absurdly against their private interests to public predilections. And the woollen manufacturers of the western counties were too prudent to gratify Mr. Wedgwood’s passion for politics, at the hazard of provoking Irish retaliation: they saw, that by opposing the arrangements, in order to please a party, they might probably lose, but could not possibly gain.’

Concerning the comparative price of labour in England and Ireland, the information contained in this Answer is too important to be omitted.

‘The low wages of labour in Ireland; the lower price of labour in Ireland as five shillings a week are to eight; are the facts, or rather the mis-statements, on which the manufacturers have grounded both their calculations and clamours. These mis-statements furnish the chief argument against the proposed arrangements. And it may be proper therefore to enquire minutely how the fact really stands.

‘The wages of common labourers are certainly higher in England than in Ireland. Mechanics are as amply paid in one country as in the other. But, in every species of weaving (except in plain linen) the Irish weaver earns more money in proportion to the work done than the English. In the cotton ma-

manufacture (for example), in Dublin, six pence a yard is paid for weaving a 45 beer callico: whereas, in England, the average price of such manufacture is not quite three pence. The well-known rates established at Dublin for workmanship are higher than at Manchester. This circumstance induced the Irish to plant their cotton manufacture at Prosperous, on the border of the Bog of Allen. Here they established nominally the Lancashire prices: but there are so many indulgences given of house-rent and machinery, and the work performed by the men for their wages is so much less, that the price of labour at Prosperous, and at other cotton manufactories in Ireland, is, in fact, much higher than it is in England. A working printer of lincens, or cottons, is paid in Ireland a guinea a week, which is the usual price in England when the men work by the week; but when the printers work on task by the piece, they are paid higher wages in Ireland than in Lancashire. And this last fact the manufacturers themselves acknowledged to the committee of council.

In confirmation of these assertions, the author has subjoined, for the satisfaction of the public, a comparative statement of the prices at which cottons can be manufactured in Britain and Ireland; framed, as we are told, upon an accurate attention to the respective prices of the raw materials and labour in both countries.

From these specimens our readers may be enabled to form an opinion of the present pamphlet. The opinion of the legislature, respecting the general utility of the Irish propositions, would seem to be already decided.

*Sermons preached before the University of Oxford, in the Year 1784, at the Lecture founded by the Rev. John Bampton, M. A. The Second Edition. To which is now added, A Sermon, preached before the University of Oxford, July 4, 1784, on the Duty of attempting the Propagation of the Gospel, among our Mahometan Subjects in India. By J. White, B. D. Fellow of Wadham College, Archbishop Laud's Professor of Arabic, and one of his Majesty's Preachers at Whitehall. 8vo. 7s. in Boards. Robinson.*

**I**N our Review for December last we presented our readers with some account of Mr. White's Bampton Lecture Sermons, on the Comparison of Christianity and Mahometanism, preached before the University of Oxford, in the year 1784. These elegant and truly animated compositions are now reprinted, with an additional sermon, *On the Duty of attempting the Propagation of the Gospel among our Mahometan and Gentoo Subjects in India*, preached also before the university of Oxford, and intended as a kind of sequel to the lectures.

In this sermon the author has, with his usual ingenuity, succeeded in throwing a considerable degree of novelty on a beaten and exhausted subject. His text is Mark xvi 15. *Go ye into all the world, and preach the gospel to every creature.* Instead, however, of entering into any formal discussion of the general question relating to the duty of *preaching the gospel to every creature*, after a short enumeration of the principal causes which have hitherto retarded its propagation, Mr. White very judiciously proceeds, first, to obviate some of the most popular and plausible objections which have been alledged against any such attempts; and secondly, endeavours to enforce the peculiar expediency of propagating it among eastern nations.

By the enemies of revelation it has been frequently urged, and indeed with some degree of speciousness and plausibility, that the Deity delights in the variety of religions which appear in the world; and that he is pleased with the infinitely diversified forms of worship under which he is adored by his creatures.

This objection, our author observes, is not new, or peculiar to the philosophers of the present day: it was started 'near three centuries ago by one of those writers\*, whom it is the custom of these same philosophers to ridicule for narrow conceptions and groveling superstition.'

Mr. White might have added, that the same notion prevails likewise among the Bramins, and has been actually advanced by them in their preface to the translation of the code of Gentoo laws. The passage to which we allude is exceedingly curious, and as it seems to have escaped the attention of Mr. White, we shall make no apology for presenting it to our readers.

'From men of enlightened understandings and sound judgment, who, in their researches after truth, have swept from their hearts the dust of malice and opposition, it is not concealed that the contrarieties of religion, and diversities of belief, which are causes of envy and of enmity to the ignorant, are in fact a manifest demonstration of the power of the supreme Being: for it is evident that a painter by sketching a multiplicity of figures, and by arranging a variety of colours, procures a reputation among men; and a gardener, for planting a diversity of shrubs, and for producing a number of different flowers, gains credit and commendation; wherefore it is absurdity and ignorance to view, in an inferior light, him who created both the painter and the gardener. The truly intelligent well know that the differences and varieties of created things are a ray of

\* 'Forſitan et varietas hujusmodi, ordinante Deo, decorem quandam parit in univerſo mirabilem.' Marſilius Ficinus, in his Treatiſe on the Chriſtian Religion, chap. iv.

his glorious essence—whose comprehensive benevolence selected man, the centre of knowledge, to have the dominion and authority over the rest; and having bestowed upon this favourite object judgment and understanding, gave him supremacy over the corners of the world; and when he had put into his hand the free controul and arbitrary disposal of all affairs, he appointed to each tribe its own faith, and to every sect its own religion; and having introduced a numerous variety of casts, and a multiplicity of different customs, he views in each particular place the mode of worship respectively appointed to it; sometimes he is employed with the attendants upon the mosque in counting the sacred beads; sometimes he is in the temple at the adoration of idols; the intimate of the Mussulman, and the friend of the Hindoo; the companion of the Christian, and the confidant of the Jew.”—

The objection is here urged with a degree of ingenuity which would have reflected no discredit even on the acuteness of European philosophy. But the existence of various religions in the world, and the prevalence of different modes of worship in different countries, admits, of a full and satisfactory solution, without having recourse to the immediate appointment and interposition of the Deity. And whatever analogy this apparent variety in God's moral government may be supposed to bear to that which exists in the works of nature, it undoubtedly affords no argument against the honest and vigorous exertion of all our powers in diffusing the light of the true religion.

After combating this objection with great strength of argument, Mr. White proceeds to detect the fallacy of that well known sophism which has often been maintained with greater confidence than abilities by the patrons of infidelity, and as often refuted with much philosophical acuteness by the friends of enlightened religion; we mean the sophism, that it is of little importance what religion men profess, whether they admit one God, or more than one, whether they bow the knee at the altar of an imaginary or a real deity, provided they practise good morality.

Having obviated these objections, which, if well founded, would operate with irresistible force against every attempt to propagate our religion amongst distant nations, Mr. White enumerates the peculiar inducements and advantages which the situation of our territorial possessions holds out to us, for attempting its propagation amongst the inhabitants of the East.

The grand religious distinction which prevails throughout the vast and extensive empire of Hindostan, is that which separates

parates the Mahometan from the Gentoos. The superstition of the Gentoos was the original religion of the natives. Mahometanism owes its introduction into this country to the sword. Under the auspices of the victorious Timour, whose lineal descendants still occupy the throne of Delhi, it obtained an establishment in India. Notwithstanding the sudden violence of conquest, and the silent operation of time, the Gentoos exceed the Mahometans in the proportion of ten to one, and retain even at this day an originality of character which has suffered little diminution from the establishment of a different race among them.

Of the superstitious rites of the Gentoos Mr. White has given us a short delineation. Perhaps the generality of his readers may wish that he had been a little more particular in his detail. He thinks, however, that there are some circumstances in the manners, the tempers, the habits, and even the superstition of the Gentoos, which seem to afford a rational prospect of success to any endeavours which shall be made to convert them to a purer faith.

After having pointed out, with a spirit of great liberality, the manner in which every attempt of this kind should be conducted, our author, in the following very animated passages, replies to an exception which might perhaps be made by the politician to the prudence and propriety of the plan which he recommends.

“To the scheme here proposed, there doubtless is an objection which a groveling and sordid spirit of covetousness is too apt to cherish. “At present, it may be said, the credulous Mahometan, and superstitious Gentoos, are unambitious in their views, and tractable in their dispositions. Their opinions do not disturb our tranquillity, and their ceremonies only provoke our contempt. But if they should hereafter see the fallacy of the one, and the absurdity of the other: if they should catch the manly and active spirit which distinguishes the inhabitants of Christian countries: if the bolder exercise of their intellectual faculties should beget a juster sense of their civil and political rights, what may be the effects of such a revolution upon us? Actuated by nobler feelings than they have hitherto experienced, they will quickly exchange confidence for distrust, and submission for resistance. They will compel us, in our turn, to drag the yoke of servitude; or they will drive us from their shores as a race of merciless ruffians, and insatiable plunderers.”

“Now on the broad and solid principles of philanthropy and revelation, I see nothing in this popular objection which ought to shake our conviction, or to slacken our activity. A religion which enlivens the industry, and animates the courage of those who profess it; which awakens in them a more correct and more exquisite sense of their duties as men, and their importance as

citizens; such a religion, I say, carries with it many bright proofs of its utility and its truth. May we not then expect that the philosopher will view the scheme I am proposing with fixed approbation, and that the Christian will embrace it with ardent fondness?

‘ However we may attempt to varnish over the fact, the spirit of commerce will often seize, and often create opportunities of rapacity; and in regions very distant from the seat of empire, where the directions of law are frequently indistinct, and the restraints of shame are always feeble, the iron scourge of oppression will sometimes be lifted up against unprotected innocence, and conspicuous merit; against ignorance which cannot ascertain its privileges, and weakness which cannot assert them. But surely no plan of commerce can be lasting, and upon the whole advantageous; no form of government can be venerable or defensible; which excludes mutual trust, and does not provide for the mutual benefit of both parties, who are concerned with the one or subject to the other. On the contrary, if we communicate the arts, the laws, and the religion of Europe to eastern nations; if we shew them by our works as well as by our words, that we are the disciples of Jesus; if we labour both for their spiritual and their temporal welfare; there can be no reason to doubt of an ultimate and an adequate reward. They to whom we have given so sure an earnest of our sincerity and of our benevolence, will no longer view us with coldness as strangers, or with suspicion as foes. They will treat us, because they are themselves treated, as fellow-citizens and fellow-Christians; they will share with us in the common danger, and toil with us for the common interest: because they will consider themselves as partakers of the same blessings here, and heirs of the same promises hereafter.

‘ Such measures, it is true, may prevent individuals from amassing exorbitant wealth, from revelling in luxuriant voluptuousness, and from grasping at enormous dominion. But such measures, even if they tend to the removal of these outrageous evils alone, are not unworthy of our regard; and they deserve a yet larger share of our attention, if, in consequence of our honest and strenuous endeavours to execute them, the general harmony of the Europeans and Orientals would be more effectually secured, and the general happiness of both promoted more successfully.

‘ Zealous in the recommendation of this purpose, I regard not the cold and mistaken policy of some, who would separate our religious from our civil interests. This country has ever boasted with equal pride and justice the purity of its worship, and the excellence of its government. The same happy era gave birth to each: out of the ashes of despotism and superstition they both arose; and if they fall, they will fall together. Narrow therefore and false is that philanthropy, which pretends to be solicitous for the rights and liberties of mankind, while  
for

for their eternal welfare it employs no measures, and even professedly feels no concern.'

This sermon, besides the passages here quoted, has many truly brilliant and striking parts; but when considered as a whole, it appears to us in some respects less finished and correct than the author's other compositions; and, notwithstanding its beauties, to which indeed we are by no means insensible, we can hardly venture to pronounce it equal to the Lectures.

Besides the addition of a new sermon, the present edition differs from the former on account of some corrections, omissions, and insertions, which the author has occasionally made; and which, with one or two exceptions only, must certainly be deemed improvements. The division of the ninth sermon into two parts is, we think, peculiarly happy, and affords a pleasing relief to the mind of the reader, which must have been burdened with the immoderate length of the discourse. The first part very properly ends with the effects of Mahometanism and Christianity on the human understanding; and the second commences with a view of their influence on the moral powers of man.

In page fourteenth of the notes is added a very long and profound note, in which the author, with great strength of argument, controverts the celebrated position of Mr. Bayle, that the luxurious enjoyments of the Mahometan paradise are less calculated to allure the sensual mind, than those pure and spiritual pleasures which Christianity holds out to its followers as the rewards of futurity. Mr. White exposes the insidious designs of Mr. Bayle, and places the futility and absurdity of his argument in a very just and strong point of view.

In enumerating the particulars in which this edition differs from the first, we cannot avoid remarking the omission of the Arabic quotations which were before inserted in the notes. In our former critique, indeed, we observed that some of these quotations were left without any version; and expressed our wishes that the defect might be supplied in a subsequent impression. At present, however, the learned professor, probably with a view of accommodating his book to common readers, has so far improved on our advice as to expunge the Arabic itself, not only in the passages alluded to, but also throughout his whole commentary.

## MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

## P O L I T I C A L.

*Loose Thoughts on the very important Situation of Ireland. By Joseph Williams, Esq. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Southern.*

MR. Williams considers the situation of Ireland only in a general point of view; and his reflections therefore can afford little assistance towards forming a right judgment of the commercial claims of that country. He seems to treat with disdain the idea that Ireland is entitled to any such concessions as those which are at present under the deliberation of the legislature. But whatever spirit Mr. Williams discovers in his sentiments, he appears to us to be not entirely free from prejudices, both national and personal.

*Defence of the Opposition with respect to their Conduct on Irish Affairs. 8vo. 2s. Stockdale,*

From the title of this pamphlet, we might have expected to find in it a serious vindication of the opponents to the Irish propositions; but instead of any arguments in their favour, we are presented with extracts of various speeches, relative to the affairs of Ireland, delivered in parliament by Mr. Sawbridge, Mr. Burke, lord Beauchamp, the earl of Upper Ossory, Mr. Fox, lord North, Mr. Wellbore Ellis, &c. These speeches, which are said to be faithfully extracted, and to each of which is subjoined the date of its delivery, afford, we must acknowledge, very striking instances of the change of avowed opinions; for they seem to concur in the expediency of granting to Ireland not only legislative independence, in its fullest extent, but an unlimited freedom of commerce.

*The Rights of Juries vindicated. The Second Edition. 8vo. 3s. Johnson.*

In our account of the former edition of this pamphlet, we were mistaken in observing, that the speeches it contained had already appeared in the public prints. For we have since learned, that the speech published in the news-papers was only an imperfect sketch of what was delivered by Mr. Erskine on the eighth of November; and that the speeches in that pamphlet were never before printed. At the same time that we correct this error, we cannot withhold from acknowledging the importance of the present production. It contains a variety of ingenious arguments and observations of the counsel, on a point extremely interesting to the friends of constitutional liberty. The speeches of the earl of Mansfield, Mr. justice Willes, and Mr. justice

Abb-



Afshurst, form likewise a valuable addition to the legal information on this subject.

*An authentic Copy of the Judgment delivered by the Right Hon. Earl of Mansfield, in the Case of the King against William Davies Shipley, Dean of St. Asaph.* 8vo. 1s. Stockdale.

This Copy is not only inaccurately printed, but is in many passages so defective as to make the sentiments of the noble judge appear to great disadvantage.

*An Address to Parliament, on the Situation of the Navy Surgeons.* By William Renwick, Surgeon in the Royal Navy. 8vo. 2s. Law.

This Address contains, in the language of a late author, 'many things which do, and many which do not belong to the subject.' It is too vague in its substance, and too diffuse in its form, to be of that service which the author may expect from it. Yet we think the object deserves the attention of the lords of the admiralty; and an addition to the rank of navy surgeons, as well as a more adequate provision for those who are dismissed from the service, would be highly advantageous to the public, by making this department more generally respectable, so as to attract more able men of the profession. We do not mean to detract from the navy surgeons: we have known men of humanity, judgment, and the greatest professional skill, engaged in this service; but we ought to add, that in the large demands of the late war, many procured the appointment without the ability of properly fulfilling it.

## P O E T R Y.

*The Wanderer; or Edward to Eleonora. A Poem.* 4to. 2s. Kearfley.

The author tells us that 'the composition of the following poem has been his employment when at a loss for amusement, or when no source of it could be found so innocent and satisfactory.' We suppose the story which he relates to be entirely fictitious; for, if true, 'tis of so melancholy a nature, we cannot conceive what pleasure or satisfaction could be derived from recounting it: neither do we always understand it: some passages are really good, and others strangely contradictory. In the beginning he informs us, or rather the lady to whom his poetic epistle is addressed, that he is

'An hapless wanderer! ever doom'd to prove  
The pang severe of disappointed love;  
Still thy idea clouds my lonely way.'

Yet, instead of disappointment, we find he had met with success, in indulging his lawless passion, and at times feels no sorrow on the occasion,

‘ — cruel Edward stole  
 Virtue’s mild sceptre from thy guileless soul;  
 In evil hour the ruthless spoiler came,  
 Seduc’d thy heart, and gave thee all to shame!  
 ‘ Yet ah! while musing o’er thy varied woe,  
 No vain remorse this stubborn breast can know;  
 For, when to Fancy’s eye thy form appears,  
 Beauty’s warm beams emerging from thy tears  
 Again my fond impassion’d bosom fire,  
 And rouse each thrilling tumult of desire.’

‘ — I seek for peace in vain,  
 Ah, vainly seek *one interval* from pain!  
 Ere I beheld thee—with indifference blest,  
 No idle sorrow harbour’d in my breast;’

But in another place we find that he was

‘ Known to misfortune, while a child in years.’

In the language of Nat Lee, which phrenzy would only render excusable, he tells Eleonora,

‘ Were heav’n’s rich joys reserv’d alone for me,  
 This rebel heart would fly from heav’n to thee;  
 If mine the transport which thy charms bestow,  
 Ev’n heav’n itself, without one pang, forego!’

Surely among such violent professions of love, and agonies of remorse, as this poem contains, some reason should be assigned for his deserting the lady, both for her satisfaction as well as the reader’s; but the story is entirely dark in that respect, and equally so in many others. The style however is easy and flowing, and some passages elegant and pathetic.

*The Poet, a Poem; addressed to Mr. Jerningham. By J. Colls.*  
 8vo. 1s. Robson.

The author professes to write under the impulse of a ‘daring Muse,’

‘ That springs indignant from a humble state,  
 And would be something e’en in spite of fate.’

To counteract the decrees of Destiny is a bold undertaking. If an easy style, and a moderate share of the poetica vis, could effect it, he has no reason to despair; and we wish him success in his attempt.

*Pictures from Nature. In Twelve Sonnets. To which is added, the Lock transformed. 4to. 1s. 6d. Dilly.*

A few observations, and in general just ones, relative to the nature of sonnets, are prefixed to this publication. We are told that ‘every leading image or sentiment in those now offered to the public, were derived from real incident, or actual observation.’ The following, which we take for granted alludes to robin redbreasts, who are extremely quarrelsome towards the fall

fall of the year, is evidently derived from that source, and will prove no unfavourable specimen of the performance.

‘Lorn birds! whose simple minstrelsy, the last  
That nature pouring on the pensive ear,  
Bids echo back her vernal songs o’erpast,  
And breathe a requiem o’er the closing year—  
Ah, who could think, while pity loves to steal  
From every cadence of your melting strain,  
Ah, who could think such little breasts could feel  
Ungentle strife, or work each other pain?  
And yet, tho’ seeming harmony of heart  
Flows in the sweetness of each charming note—  
Oft from the bitter fray ye bleeding part,  
Torn the stain’d plume, and pierc’d the vocal throat!  
Beneath the fairest aspect of disguise  
Alas, too oft the cruel bosom lies!’

*Hyper-criticism on Miss Seward's Louisa, including Observations on the Nature and Privileges of Poetic Language. 8vo. 1s. Dilly.*

The greater part of this pamphlet is employed in vindicating the poem against the Monthly Reviewers, but in such a manner as scarcely to deserve a serious answer. We luckily escape with only two objections to our critique. The first is, that we were wrong to call the comparison *fanciful*, where a lady's locks falling on her ‘snowy bosom’ are said to resemble

‘—a warm sunbeam on a lily's bell.’

To controvert the propriety of this innocent epithet, we are told that ‘the best poetry frequently sports with slight and shadowy resemblances, which it is the province of a vivid imagination to bring together.

‘Her face was like an April morn  
Clad in a wintry cloud.’

‘Bright hair on the white bosom of a nymph is at least a like a sunbeam on the bell of a lily, as the corpse of a beautiful woman (which is all the idea we can have of her ghost) is to a morning of April spread over with wintry clouds.’

But what is this to the purpose? Because this simile is beautifully fanciful, is that a reason why the other, because fanciful, must of course be beautiful? Or, because he says, in the next sentence, that he ‘had rather be the author of the last quoted lines than of many a long poem,’ therefore the others deserve equal admiration? We deny the comparison in the first lines to be equally just with that in the second. In the latter we have no ‘idea of a corpse’, but of an unembodied spirit congenial, at least sufficiently so for poetical purposes, with the airy vision to which it is assimilated.

We are next attacked for asking this *wonderful* question,—  
‘How a noise so loud as to frighten people should be produced

by a horse's galloping through a wood?' In this instance our objection is not fairly stated: it arose from the absurd image of a horse's trampling on *fibrous oaks* (which gives rather an idea of green branches than *barren'd roots*, as this gentleman interprets the passage) making the earth 'resound with hollow noise', which is 'doubled by the echoes from the caves.' We candidly supposed that roots were meant; but still the effect is too great for the cause; therefore the passage is reprehensible.

Those who are concerned in reputable publications, should take especial care of pronouncing rashly upon the works of established poetical writers, who must sedulously have studied the principles of their science, and who have probably followed Mr. Pope's example, in taking the opinions of their learned and ingenious friends upon every part of their work, before it goes to the press, experiencing the same respectful dread which he professed of laying before the public a work unworthy of its approbation.

With this advice the sagacious author concludes his pamphlet; the interpretation of which seems to be, that as Miss Seward has cultivated her talents to the highest degree, no one should presume to point out any blemishes in her performance; that because she shews her poems to her friends, before their publication, and they approve them, it is unjustifiable presumption for any one to controvert their opinion.

The puerile observations and unlimited encomiums which this performance contains, would tend to injure, not elevate, this lady's poetical reputation, *could it be supposed* she gave any encouragement to this labour of her zealous, but injudicious friend. She must be conscious that we have not been niggards in our praise; and, though not blind to some defects, have pointed them out with candour, and 'sat down naught in malice!' Neither have we reason to suppose our brother journalists acted otherwise. In matters of taste opinions will vary; and with all our partiality for this lady, we cannot allow her that universality of excellence for which her present advocate so warmly contends.

*Sonnets and other Poems; with a Versification of the Six Bards of Ossian.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. Wilkie.

These poems, like most other miscellanies, have different degrees of merit; or rather, some have no merit at all. How jejune and puerile is the idea pursued in the first Sonnet?

'Ask'st why I court the poor neglected lyre?

In hopes, thro' life, 'twill chear my steady way,

Drawn by no worldly pomp, nor cares astray,

And give me passport to the heavenly choir.'

Here we might likewise ask how a 'neglected lyre' can be 'courted,' or how the author can suppose poetical abilities, (that we apprehend is the meaning, not the instrument itself) will entitle a man to heaven?

'The

' The conscience, pure delight that I inspire,  
And for good deeds alone pour forth the lay,  
No aid, my friend, to lead me calmly gay  
Thro' ignorance and envy will require.

I strike the strings: and strait my purged ear  
Hears not their praise or blame. For if my song  
Should, as it breathes, illumine the brow of care,

The sluggard rouse, or bears the faint along;  
Shall I for self alone have labour'd here?

Oh, no! the plea shall gain my soul heav'n's tuneful  
throng.'

The words in the first lines are so irregularly arranged, that it is difficult to find out the meaning; and the thought repeated in the last, extremely absurd. Can it be supposed, that a good poet has the same right to expect divine favour as a good man? Our author holds the affirmative, and asserts boldly *his* claim to immortality; which, if the position was allowed, such verses as the preceding would surely never acquire. The following lines are of a different nature.

' By silver Cynthia's shadowy gleam,  
We drink of Inspiration's stream,  
A thousand fairy shapes we see,  
That with the pensive mood agree;  
Forms, in thousand lights combin'd,  
Fleet before the tranced mind;  
And, lest we lose the airy train,  
We paint them in the living strain.'

The author does not appear devoid of poetical talents: his imagination is often brilliant, and his expressions sometimes happy; but he is defective in judgment, and frequently obscure.

*Chinese Maxims. Translated from the Oeconomy of Human Life. into Heroic Verse. In Seven Parts. By Susannah Watts. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Lowndes.*

The Oeconomy of Human Life has been admired as a just imitation of the Oriental mode of composition, for the sublimity of its thoughts, and the excellence of its maxims. The version, which would have been a more proper title than translation, as it never appeared in any other language than our own, is neither remarkable for its beauties nor defects. We shall give a few lines of the Introduction, with the correspondent part in the original, that the reader may form an idea of its merit. He will possibly be of our opinion, that the simple grandeur of the one is more expressive and captivating, than the fictitious ornaments of the other.

' Bow down your heads unto the dust, oh ye inhabitants  
of earth! be silent, and receive with reverence instruction  
from on high, — Wheresoever the sun doth shine, wheresoever  
the wind doth blow, wheresoever there is an ear to hear, and  
a mind

a mind to conceive, there let the precepts of life be made known, let the maxims of truth be honoured and obeyed.—All things proceed from God. His power is unbounded, his wisdom is from eternity, and his goodness endureth for ever. He sitteth on his throne in the centre, and the breath of his mouth giveth life to the world. He toucheth the stars with his finger, and they run their course rejoicing. On the wings of the wind he walketh abroad, and performeth his will through all the regions of unlimited space.—Order, and grace, and beauty, spring from his hands.

‘ Ye who the earth’s material circle tread,  
To humble dust recline the modest head ;  
O’er the quick thought let silence meek preside,  
And bend with fear to hear an heav’nly guide.  
Where’er the sun with warming lustre shines,  
Where’er the wind the ambient air refines,  
Where’er the ear a list’ning wish displays,  
Where’er the mind would search instruction’s ways,  
There let the rules of virtuous life be shewn,  
And truth with honour and obedience known.

‘ One glorious origin all nature fills,  
And through his works created life infills.  
His pow’r unbounded no vain limit knows,  
His wisdom infinite for ever flows :  
Fix’d as his crown, his goodness lasts secure,  
And peace and mercy as his reign endure.  
High from his central throne he deigns to breathe  
A vital vigour on the world beneath.  
His pow’rful finger marks the planet’s way,  
Th’ obedient planets swift with joy obey.  
On wings of air he cuts the liquid trace,  
And rules the immense unbounded realms of space.  
Conspicuous order, grace, and beauty’s glow,  
Spring from his hand, and thro’ his footsteps flow.’

*An Ode on the much lamented Death of Dr. Samuel Johnson,  
Written the 18th December, 1784. 4to. 1s. Bew.*

Of this very extraordinary Ode we shall say nothing, but leave the concluding lines to speak for themselves, as they need no comment.

‘ The wrinkled hags around them stare,  
Æolian harps are heard in air :  
Of pow’r bereft, for Fear had taught,  
The dreadful news each zephyr brought.—  
“ Oh rueful night,  
To spleen and spight ! —  
Away ! away !  
No longer stay !”  
The Furies cry’d,  
And lash’d the tide :—

“ Fam’d

“Fam’d cliffs of Albion, mark this long farewell,  
If Faction dies, all, all will yet be well!”

We heartily join with our author in his prophetic kind of wish; but if we must wait for the expiration of Faction before our well-being commences, we fear it will be postponed *ad Græcas kalendas*.

## N O V E L S.

*Matilda; or the Efforts of Virtue. A Novel. In a Series of Letters. 3 Vols. 12mo. 9s. Lane.*

These young ladies write very prettily and sentimentally; every man has a ‘fine understanding,’ and every lady is very handsome, and much in love. Their lovers too are all accomplished.—Yet here and there we perceive a few ‘purple shreds,’ seemingly cut from a more valuable garment, and one more substantial than the flimsy gauze of which this summer-robe is composed.

*The Misfortunes of Love. A Novel. Translated from the French. 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. Lane.*

If this be a translation, for in this age of literary imposition we always doubt; but if it be really so, as from some internal evidence we have reason to suppose, it will only prove that our neighbours are equally craving after novelty with ourselves, and satisfied with the same unsubstantial fate. Is invention at so low an ebb in this island, that we must make every crudity, every trifling publication of the continent our own? It is not from necessity; for the Myrtles, the Sir Henry Clarendons, with a long catalogue of etceteras, loudly testify against even the suspicion.

*The Nabob. A Novel. By a Lady. 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. Lane.*

Reviewers are flattered, praised, and threatened; every form is assumed to gain their good opinion. This lady, though by the way, ‘for womanhood, maid Marian may be the deputy’s wife of a ward to her,’ has the confidence to ask ‘what a *young woman* is to do with a whole body corporate of grey-beards?’ She talks of pleasing and bribing them, by kisses we suppose; and grey-beards as we are, we may not be proof against some kinds of bribes, though not those which our author could offer, since we shrewdly suspect a little fallacy in appearances, and, like Slender, might find a ‘great lubberly boy’ instead of ‘sweet Anne Page.’ As our consciences are therefore clear, and even undue influence has had no power over us, we may venture to praise this novel, without incurring the charge of partiality. Amidst hackneyed scenes, and the usual characters with which such productions abound, there is novelty in the situations, spirit in the language, and a proper discrimination of style. The moral is just, and the conduct of the different parties frequently exemplary. The sprightliness of lady Harriet

is distant from the caprice of some admired characters, and the levity of others. It is highly agreeable and entertaining; but we cannot approve of the great intimacy with Neville, or recommend it to our fair readers, though the heroine herself escaped harmless: perhaps the author copied from the integrity of her own heart. Yet 'our worships' know not 'what a good kind of young woman' you are.

## M E D I C A L.

*Observations on an extraordinary Case of ruptured Uterus. By Andrew Douglas, M. D. 1s. 6d. Johnson.*

There is no principle which we would more strongly recommend and support, than a sanguine reliance on the exertions of nature. To pronounce a disease incurable, and a situation hopeless, covers indolence and inattention in the practitioner, and fills the mind of the cheerless sufferer with gloom and despondency. It adds to the force of the disease, and finishes the scene which might perhaps have otherwise had a more favourable event. Our present author co-operates with us in this attempt, and we wish him that success which his benevolence and knowledge have deserved. At no very distant period we were engaged in researches on this subject; to collect from authors how often a ruptured uterus had been fatal. Our labours are not now within our reach, but we remember that a rupture at any part near the os tincæ, with proper management, was seldom fatal; that the danger however increased the nearer the wound was to the fundus. But the present case adds another circumstance to our experience, as it informs us, that even when a child passes through the laceration into the cavity of the abdomen, if it be quickly and carefully extracted, the patient may recover. In all the successful cases, *distinctly related*, we still find our former principle confirmed: the laceration has not been very near the fundus. The reason will be obvious to every intelligent reader.

Dr. Douglas explains the symptoms by which we may suspect a rupture to have taken place; and his management of the patient, which is the principal subject of the pamphlet, is so judicious, that (*mutatis mutandis*) we think it may be a proper model for the imitation of other practitioners. But for these particulars we must refer to the Observations.

*Medical Reports of the Effects of Tobacco, principally with Regard to its Diuretic Quality, in the Cure of Dropsies, and Dysurics. By Thomas Fowler, M. D. 8vo. 2s. Johnson.*

The salt procured from ashes of tobacco, was, some years since, recommended by Dr. Garden, in dropsies: among other remedies we then tried them; but the salt was in so small a quantity, that our experience was little, and that little not in favour of the remedy. It was a natural and rational suppo-

sition,



sition, that the plant itself might be employed for the same purpose; and Dr. Fowler, on trial, thinks it successful. He infuses an ounce of the best Virginian tobacco in a pint of boiling water, and finds it slightly laxative, and highly diuretic. We have noticed this pamphlet early, because we would disseminate the instruction, and, on that account, have not waited for the event of our own trials; but we shall take an opportunity of communicating their results.

Besides dropries, Dr. Fowler recommends the infusion in dysurics, and, as a glyster, in colics. The dose, in the stomach, is from thirty to two hundred drops; and it seems necessary to increase it so far as to bring on a slight vertigo. In injection, he employs an ounce in half a pint of milk. But we already suspect an inconvenience, which every deleterious vegetable is subject to, viz. that the peculiar effects on the vessels are more quickly lost than those on the nervous system; so that we cannot increase its dose, when by habit it no longer procures a flow of urine. Perhaps this inconvenience, suggested by some of Dr. Fowler's cases, may be imaginary, and it ought by no means to prevent a trial, by which alone the merit of the remedy can be ascertained. For more particular instructions, we must refer to the work itself: it is candid and rational, but with a little of the enthusiasm which usually distinguishes the recommender of a new remedy.

#### MISCELLANEOUS.

*Paterfon's British Itinerary. Being a new and accurate Delineation and Description of the direct and principal Cross-Roads of Great Britain. 2 Vols. 8vo. 2l. 2s. Carington Bowles.*

In our thirty-first Volume, page 240, we mentioned this author's new and accurate description of the direct and cross roads in Great Britain. What was then described is now engraved in a very accurate manner. This Itinerary seems to have been executed with uncommon attention, and deserves the greatest encouragement from the public. The plates contain a delineation of the roads, with the gentlemen's seats, and principal objects, eighteen miles on each side.

*An Asylum for Fugitive Pieces in Prose and Verse, not in any other Collection; with several Pieces never before published. 12mo. 3s. Debrett.*

Most of the poems and other treatises in this collection are satyrical; the greater part levelled against the premier and his adherents. The coalition-party have likewise some share of the abuse, but it is in general neither so pointed nor humorous as that directed against the other. The shafts of satire are commonly more keen when wielded by disappointment than success. The contents of this miscellaneous compilation, like that of most others, have various degrees of merit. The verses written by a gentleman, the initials of whose name are J. G. are totally

tally unworthy of publication: some others likewise should have been omitted; but the following, which we shall quote for their shortness, will serve to shew that those at least who are fond of *light reading*, will here meet with entertainment.

‘ *Rondeau.*

By two black eyes my heart was won,  
Sure never wretch was more undone!

To Celia with my suit I came;

But she, regardless of her prize,  
Thought proper to reward my flame

By two black eyes!

‘ *An Expofulation.*

‘ When late I attempted your pity to move,

Why seem’d you so deaf to my pray’rs?

Perhaps it was right to dissemble your love—

But—why did you kick me down stairs?’

‘ *Verses addressed to a Gentleman who had wrote bad Poetry, abusing the Author, and procured a Lady to transcribe it. By the Rev. Mr. Hutton.*

‘ Stella transcribes what you compose;

A poor contrivance Ned!

It only shews how much her hand

Is better than your head.

Stella can no such virtue boast

As Midas had of old;

For whatfoe’er that monarch touch’d,

He turn’d it into gold.

Thy leaden lines, from Stella’s hand,

Will no such change admit;

Nor can the lady’s utmost skill

Transcribe them into wit.

Henceforth a diff’rent method try;

That may succeed—who knows!

Be your’s the business to transcribe,

And Stella’s to compose.’

The concluding part of the volume is taken up in critical remarks on the *Rolliad*, not unlike those annexed to the *Dunciad*. When we can discover the likeness, though evidently dictated by spleen, they are truly laughable; and probably the authors’ hearts ‘in the midst of mirth were sorrowful.’

*The Spartan Manual, or Tablet of Morality. Small 8vo. is. 6d. Dilly.*

‘ This little work will be found to comprize the sentiments of ancient wisdom upon a variety of the most interesting subjects of human action. These are either their apophthegms, maxims, or precepts. Precepts are sentences conveying, with studied brevity, some moral rule for the conduct of life. Such, for

for instance, are those of Chilo: Know thyself, and desire nothing overmuch; which, together with his maxim that misery is the constant companion of debts and differences, were thought worthy to be engraved in golden characters on the temple of Apollo, at Delphi: the first of them, according to Juvenal, having been sent down from heaven. Precepts and maxims were either written by the authors themselves, or uttered in their set speeches or ordinary conversation. Apophthegms, of the nature of our repartees, were generally spoken in reply to some question, or in consequence of some observation by another, from which many of them cannot easily be detached, and are not on that account here given; unless, now and then, at the bottom of a page. Every sentence in the collection may be referred to one or other of these three descriptions.

This is the editor's account of the collection, extracted from his sensible, well-written Preface; but, as usual, the value of this Manual is somewhat exaggerated. Of many ancient wise men we know little, and seem to have received their sum of wisdom sometimes in a trite, sometimes a judicious and comprehensive precept. In others, we perceive more accurate knowledge of the heart, and a sententious brevity, highly commendable. These different kinds are collected and arranged according to their subjects. Perhaps the best have been often repeated in more connected forms; and the others we could well have spared. But somewhat is due to the good intentions of the editor; and he deserves praise, from his attempts to inculcate sound morality. This little Manual is certainly calculated to convey instruction, if those for whom it is designed can overlook the form to obtain the substance. Indeed, the form itself may be calculated for those desultory readers, who will catch a sentence, though they cannot pursue an essay.

*La Triomphe de la Raison; ou Lettres de deux jeunes Dames de Qualité; dédiée, par Permission, à Madame la Duchesse de Devonshire: Par Mademoiselle Cacoault de la Mimardiere. 12mo. 3s. Dilly.*

Though reason triumphs in this tale, yet the triumph will be of another kind to the reader of this volume. He must possess the resolute perseverance of a Reviewer, to enable him to pursue these pages of inanity, without a single observation, without one reflection which deserves attention; and, what is of more consequence to some readers, very few adventures. The dedication approaches near to that style which Addison calls the celestial: this kind, he observes, is generally the language of one lady to another; they adore as they wish to be adored. The Letters are written in French, though the idiom is frequently English. It has lately been remarked, that the French themselves think their language improved by a little mixture of our's, and that it gives force and precision. As we cannot offer any remark which will be more favourable to the work, we shall conclude with leaving this advantageous impression.

*The*

*The Modern English Fruit-Gardener, and Practical Wall-Tree Pruner.* 12mo. 2s. sewed. Fielding.

We will select the author's own account of his work, for it is very just and candid, since he has performed all that he has promised.

‘The plan is calculated to communicate and explain a regular and improved practical system, for the culture of fruit-trees, according to the most successful modern practice; pointing out the utility, and various modes of training, either for standards, walls, or espaliers: and to lay down practical directions for raising them from seed, grafting, budding, layers, cuttings, suckers, &c. with their progress of training in the nursery, in the several orders required for the garden and orchard. To these are added, a full explanation of the different modes of training. And as the different species, together with their respective varieties of fruit, are separately arranged under different heads, the qualities and merits of each species is discriminated; with the methods of propagation, and order of training, peculiar to each sort. The proper situations, and orders of planting are also fully explained, and the modern improvements introduced, whereby the whole process of pruning and training are particularly and familiarly described, from actual practice; including all the other practical operations, in the general culture of each kind, from the earliest period till they arrive at maturity, &c. To which are added, plain and familiar instructions for obtaining early fruits by artificial heat, in hot-walls and forcing-houses; illustrated with a plan and elevation, upon the most modern and approved construction.’

Among the varieties of apples, we find the London gardeners are not acquainted with some valuable kinds, very frequent in the West; such as, for instance, the red and white quarenton (probably charenton), and the stubbard. The white quarenton is said to be of a delicate flavour and consistence, to come early to maturity, and perhaps to be excelled by neither of the other kinds.

*Authentic Narrative of the Treatment of the English who were taken Prisoners on the Reduction of Bednore, by Tippoo Saib. By Captain Henry Oakes. A new Edition.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. Kearsley.

To the new edition of this melancholy Narrative is added, a Correct List of the Commissioned and Non-commissioned Officers and Privates, of his Majesty's Troops, who survived the Series of Hardships, and joined the Escort at Socrapatam and Bonaveram, the 27th of March, and 2d of April, 1784. Printed from the List published by the Order of the Directors of the East India Company.



## CRITICAL REVIEW.

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 For J U N E, 1785.
 

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*A Translation of the Inferno of Dante Alighieri, in English Verse. With Historical Notes, and the Life of Dante. By Henry Boyd, A. M. Small 8vo. 10s. 6d. in Boards. Dilly.*

SOME detached parts of this extraordinary poem have been rendered into English verse by different authors. The most considerable undertaking of the kind, the present excepted, is that of Mr. Hayley; who has inserted in the notes to his Essay on Epic Poetry, a close but spirited translation of the three first cantos. He there intimates some intention of giving an entire version of it, should his specimen meet with a favourable reception. We know not whether he has dropped his intention; but if he has, there is the less reason to regret it, from the abilities displayed in the present performance.—We are first presented with a summary view of Dante's poem, entitled *Commedia*, extracted from Mr. Warton's History of English Poetry, which contains no less than one hundred cantos, giving a description of hell (that part which is now offered to the public), purgatory, and paradise. Its title has been ridiculed by Voltaire, and we think not well accounted for by those who have vindicated it. Some say it was given because 'it begins with distress, and ends with felicity.' But neither the distress nor felicity are of the comic kind. Martinelli asserts, that in Dante's time *Commedia* signified 'a description of the manners of common life,' but even then we cannot discover its propriety. No human being, the author excepted, is introduced. Angels, devils, and departed spirits, are the principal actors: with them are joined, in the present performance,

'All monstrous, all prodigious things—  
Gorgons and hydras, and chimeras dire.'

It signifies however but little why so peculiar a title became annexed to this poem, which has deservedly, in spite of all its absurdities, entitled Dante to the honourable appellation of *Father of the Italian Poetry*.—In the next place is given a

'Comparative View of the *Inferno*, with some other Poems relative to the original Principles of Human Nature, on which they are founded, or to which they appeal.' The translator observes, that

'It is now grown familiar to appeal to the sentiments of nature from the dictates of Aristotle; and poets who were ignorant of his rules, or did not chuse to plan their works according to them, may at last expect a fair hearing; after having been long deemed criminals in the eyes of a law to which they were not amenable. Nor is there any danger of unworthy claimants pleading admittance into the rank of classics in consequence of the laws of criticism having taken a more liberal turn. Though the reward of literary fame or dishonour be no longer at the disposal of an arbitrary judge, but, with the other sacred rights of Englishmen, are deposited in the more liberal hands of a jury, yet the verdict of the heart which admits the claim of genius, will, by the same sacred instinct which gives a stamp to merit, be led to reprobate the production which does not fall in with its sentiments, or appeal to the conclusions of reason.

'The venerable old bard who is the subject of the present enquiry has been long neglected, perhaps for that very reason, because the merit of his poem could not be tried by the reigning laws of which the author was ignorant, or which he did not chuse to observe: he always indeed was a favourite with such as were possessed of true taste, and dared to think for themselves; but since the French, the restorers of the art of criticism, cast a damp upon original invention, the character of Dante has been thrown under a deeper shade. That agreeable and volatile nation found in themselves an insuperable aversion to the gloomy and romantic bard, whose genius, ardent, melancholy, and sublime, was so different from their own, and it is well known how soon they became the sovereign arbiters of taste, and how universally the French school of composition succeeded to the Italian.'

To these remarks we have nothing to object. However acute and even useful the Stagyrte's observations may be, pedantry alone can allow his decisions infallible, and his rules exclusively excellent. Not the cold approbation of the head, but the feelings of the heart, must decide poetic merit. It is easy to observe the artificial rules of composition, but to affect the mind by the bold sallies of genius is given to few. The French therefore, unable, from the nature of their language, and probably the co-operation of other causes, to excel in the sublimer kinds of poetry, availed themselves of critical prescriptions, sanctified by classical authority. En-trenched behind these works, which time, at least in their opinion, rather has strengthened than impaired, they behold,

not without contempt and self-complacency, other nations contending in the open field to win the palm of epic fame; prepared to attack whatever party neglects the customary routine of poetic evolutions, or hazard, through the impulse of genius, such as are new and unprecedented. But though our opinion coincides with the ingenious translator's in many instances, we differ from him in others. 'The superstition which led the crusaders to rescue the holy land from infidels, is,' we allow 'sufficiently ridiculous.' But we cannot therefore charge Tasso with any absurdity in the plan of his *Jerusalem delivered*. At the time he wrote, the crusaders were not considered as a 'crew of fanatics,' but a band of heroes, devoting themselves to danger and death from the noblest motives, and for the most glorious end. 'The exploded machinery of dæmons and magicians,' which the author styles a 'miserable resource to support an ill-chosen story,' deserves not so harsh an appellation. The superstition of the age rendered it sufficiently probable; and we believe that in our more enlightened times, the best judges prefer the marvellous parts of Tasso's story, the enchanted grove, the island of Armida, and other passages of the same kind, wild and extravagant as some may be, to his cold and uninteresting imitations of Homer and Virgil. Neither can we always agree with Mr. Boyd in his comparison between the genius and nature of the *Iliad* and the *Inferno*. The points which he labours to establish, the excellence of Dante's plan, his superiority in regard to the delineation of characters, and affecting the passions, will scarcely be allowed. If 'the Florentine has the advantage in the province of description,' it is merely in exhibiting scenes of horror; in that respect he is certainly unrivalled. As to variety and nice discrimination of characters, he is undoubtedly excelled by the Grecian bard, whose *Iliad* we believe, contrary to our author's opinion, is read by few people of poetic taste, 'with some degree of nonchalance.' In justice to him we must observe, that he apologizes for degrading Homer, as 'necessary to shew Dante in his proper light.' We cannot however see that necessity; and though the disquisition contains many acute observations, we think there are some others neither founded in justice, nor expressed with perspicuity.

We are next presented with an 'Historical Essay on the State of Affairs in the Thirteenth and Fourteenth Centuries; with Respect to the History of Florence; with a View of their Influence on the succeeding ages.' This treatise is particularly necessary on account of various characters whom Dante has consigned to the infernal regions. It concludes with a

long and sensible dissertation, chiefly relative to the nature of religious disputes, and the advantages that have been derived from them. As it is but slightly connected with the subject of the poem, we shall proceed to the Life of Dante, translated from Leonardo Bruni, and enriched with many biographical anecdotes, taken from Mr. Hayley's notes annexed to his Essay on Epic Poetry. By this we find that Dante was descended from a noble family in Florence, and born in the year 1265 : that in a very early period of life he fell in love with a lady whose name was Beatrice. She took the veil, and died at the age of twenty-six. His passion is supposed to have been merely of the Platonic kind. Petrarch, we may observe, followed his master's example in forming an attachment of a similar nature, and displayed such a refinement of sentiment as may be considered an unaccountable phenomenon in times so gross and barbarous. After this event Dante fell into a profound melancholy, but was at length prevailed on to marry, by the advice of his friends. His wife resembled Xantippe in character, but the husband did not prove a Socrates. He repudiated her, and, though she had borne him several children, never again admitted her into his presence. He afterwards acquired great military fame, and was promoted by the suffrages of the people to the chief executive office in Florence. Its citizens divided into two factions named the *blacks* and *whites* : Dante favoured the latter party, and went to Rome as their ambassador. His enemies took advantage of his absence, and expelled his friends from the city. He joined the exiles, who formed themselves into an army, and endeavoured, but in vain, to acquire by force possession of the town. Dante, proscribed and persecuted, found a patron in Cane de la Scala, prince of Verona. His austere manners probably rendered him no very agreeable guest. He was not treated with the respect he deserved, but obliged to suffer the 'spurns, which merit from the unworthy takes.' His merit however was not of the *patient* kind. He quitted the court in disgust, and retired to France. When Henry, count of Luxemburg, was raised to the empire, he instigated him to lay siege to Florence, which he accordingly did, but was repulsed, and died the ensuing year. After this, Dante is supposed to have wandered many years through Italy, in poverty and distress, till he was received under the protection of Guido Novello de Polenta, lord of Ravenna. He there spent the remainder of his days, and was buried by his illustrious friend with the highest marks of honour. However obnoxious he might have been during life to his fellow-citizens, death obliterated their resentment. They were then merely sensible of the honour conferred on their



state by having given birth to so extraordinary a man. 'They made various attempts to gain the bones of their great poet from the city of Ravenna. They assigned a stipend to a person appointed to read lectures on his poem; and gave the following terrible instance of their veneration for his memory.

'Ceno de Ascoli, a celebrated physician and astrologer, had the boldness to write parodies on the poem of Dante. This drew on him the animadversion of the inquisition. Charles, duke of Calabria, thought to protect him, but in vain. The bishop of Averfa, his chancellor, a cordelier, declared that it was highly impious to entertain a forcerer as a physician. There was no business done then without consulting an astrologer, yet Charles was obliged to resign him to the secular arm. He was accordingly burnt at Florence, about three years after the death of the poet whom he had maligned.'

The harsh and severe spirit of Dante will admit of some palliation, if we consider the barbarity of the times in which he existed.—From the sketch we have given of his Life, and the poem under consideration, it appears that he was a man of strong passions and quick resentment. In order to take what vengeance he could on his enemies, he has placed them in the infernal regions. Popes themselves, no more than other illustrious potentates, are exempted from this singular mode of retaliation. Many tenets of \* popery itself, in this and other of his performances, are treated with contempt and ridicule. The personal injuries he received from some who possessed the papal power may account for his asperity towards them: but it is not easy to reconcile the universal admiration in which his writings were held immediately after his death with the blind fanaticism of the times. He cannot indeed be charged with too great partiality in regard to his friends. Many whom he greatly esteemed, his tutor Brunello, even the beautiful † Francosia, daughter of his generous patron, are consigned to eternal torments. His disappointment in love, as well as his ambitious, if not vindictive views, in all pro-

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\* See particularly the 19th Canto, *passim*. In his *Treatise de Monarchia* he controverts the pope's authority. The old Italian poets have been very bold in this respect. Both Ariosto and Dante treat with ridicule Constantine's pretended donation to Silvester. If the reader wishes to see a copy of this pretended gift, it may be found in Geddes's *Tracts*, vol. iv. p. 12.

† Her story in the 5th, and Uggholino's in the 33d Canto, are truly pathetic. These are almost the only passages in which sympathy and the tender passions are excited: yet even in them terror predominates over pity. That it should do so, is consistent with Dante's plan, but renders the plan itself exceptionable. To have excited a very tender compassion for the objects of divine wrath, would have militated against the idea of heavenly justice. But to be restrained from such sensations is painful to sensibility.

bability soured his mind, or as Shakspeare expresses it, 'baked his blood with surly melancholy,' and caused him to receive a gloomy kind of satisfaction from reflecting on objects of an awful and tremendous nature. His imagination was vigorous and fervent; it hurried him beyond the 'visible diurnal sphere,' and impelled him to delineate 'things unattempted before in prose or rhyme.' He was likewise deeply versed in the learning of the times, and polished the language of his country: he at least may be said to have cleared away the rubbish, and laid the foundation of that beautiful edifice, his scholars Boccace and Petrarch completed. His principal defects are an artificial arrangement of incidents, and an incongruous mixture of the puerile and ludicrous with the sublime and terrible.

Of the translator's abilities and execution, we, on the whole, think highly. He has taken some liberty with the original, but it is principally in softening absurd or offensive images: a liberty that may be considered as more than excusable. His diction is animated, his expressions in general nervous and forcible, truly characteristic of the Tuscan bard, whose spirit he has happily caught, and whose harsh features, though sometimes meliorated, are seldom or never destroyed. We cannot always compliment him for the accuracy of his rhymes; nor are some passages free from obscurity: a defect greatly palliated by the difficulties of the original. Indeed the greatest faults we can perceive are those of the corrector. The performance abounds with typographical errors.

The poem opens with the spirit of Virgil informing Dante, in a vision, that he was sent by Beatrice, his former mistress, now a saint in heaven, to conduct him to the infernal regions; that by seeing the torments the damned endured, he might repent in time, and save himself from a similar fate. He accordingly proceeds with his guide, and witnesses such a variety of horrid scenes, as no pen but his, possibly ever did, or will delineate. It is rather surprising that the imagination which could so strongly and distinctly conceive such dreadful images, did not overpower the faculties of reason; for there is scarcely a single vice that disgraces human nature, but what is here brought forward, and a peculiar mode of punishment appropriated to it.—A few specimens will serve to illustrate our remark, and we shall select some of the shortest, not the most tremendous. The situation of the vindictive and envious is thus described.

'Wasted in darkness down the pitchy wave,  
We saw the Stygian pool her borders lave,

Fed

Fed by th' astounding cataract on high.  
Far, far below we spy'd the sullen flood,  
And round her borders, half immers'd in mud,  
We saw two squadrons charge with frantic cry.  
• Burning with rage, but impotent of hand,  
Naked they meet, and battle round the strand.  
Now, head to head, their clashing fronts engage  
Each other, now with lion-ramp they spurn,  
Then, while beneath their feet the wretches mourn,  
Piecemeal they rend their limbs with brutal rage.  
“ Learn hence what woes, the sage conductor said,  
Wait the devoted crew by wrath misled !  
See how they wallow round the sordid shore !  
Plung'd in the deep, another hideous crew,  
Where yonder bubbling pool attracts the view  
With smother'd groans their wayward fate deplore.”

• I listen'd, and anon, a sullen sound  
Came struggling upwards from the pool profound  
In words half-form'd, and long reluctant groans.  
Joyless we view'd the sun's benignant beam,  
Now here we hide beneath the sullen stream,  
Where ev'ry joy the envious soul disowns.

• Afar we coasted round the lake abhorr'd,  
With Envy's baleful brood innum'rous stor'd ;  
While, still some wretch amid the mantled wave  
Panting, renews the story of his woes,  
Fast on the mournful song the surges close,  
And dying curses round the borders rave.”

Other criminals are punished in the following manner :

• The tempest raves around, and borne on high,  
On its black wing the wailing shadows fly,  
Dash'd wide, and devious thro' the darksome air,  
'Till o'er the central gulph of Hades hung  
In loud distressful cries, the falling throng,  
Blaspheme their sov'reign, and attest their fear.

• These were the hapless slaves of lawless love,  
Soft pleasure's vot'ries in the world above,  
Who the still voice of reason held in scorn.  
And as a flight of starlings wing their way,  
Riding the wintry blast in long array,  
The phantoms fleet, in airy tumults borne.

• Aloft we saw the moody revel ride,  
Then, in long eddies like the swallowing tide,  
With its full freight the hurricane descends.  
Around the sinners sweep, above, below,  
Nor respite of their cares nor refuge know  
From the restless storm that never ends.”

Claudio, in Measure for Measure, being condemned to death for indulging the same passion for which those described above are punished, fears likewise lest, he

— 'Should be imprison'd in the viewless winds,  
And blown with restless violence round about  
The pendant world.' —

The idea, though not absolutely the same, is exceedingly alike. Its peculiarity makes it more striking. Are we to suppose Shakespeare was acquainted with the original? or that the same creative fancy inspired both bards, and suggested similar images. — We shall conclude our extracts with a larger specimen of Dante's genius; his arrival at the station where Satan is supposed to be confined among the perfidious and ungrateful. His situation, as he is placed in the frozen\*, not fiery region, may at first view appear rather contrasted than similar to his appearance in the first book of Paradise Lost. But on a closer inspection it will be found that the present description suggested many ideas to Milton, which in general he has finely improved.

"Yonder the flag of Erebus unfurl'd,  
Proclaims the monarch of the nether world,"  
The bard exclaim'd, as now the fogs profound,  
Dispersing slow before the rising gale,  
Disclos'd, what seem'd a tow'r with shifting sail,  
And warring tempests swept her vans around.

'Shook from his wings the fell Tornado grew,  
And all the hideous scene disclos'd to view,  
Beat with eternal storms, a barren coast!  
Half in the whirlwind seiz'd, the spirit caught,  
His trembling charge, and o'er the surface brought  
With rapid wafture to the central post.

'Oh! could the muse describe in equal strain  
The horrors of the wide Cerulean plain,  
For ever glaz'd beneath the boreal blast!  
The various postures of the tribes that lay  
In silent shoals, beneath the frozen bay,  
The lowest tenants of the wintry waste!

'Some show'd their heels aloft, and some the head,  
And some recumbent on their frozen bed,  
In prostrate files possess'd the middle deep,  
While bending some, with head and heels conjoin'd,  
Asunder each in crystal cells confin'd,  
Feel thro' their reins the icy horrors creep.

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\* See Paradise Lost, book ii. l. 587.

\* Their rigid lips were seal'd in dumb despair,  
Their stony eyes, unconscious of a tear,  
Glar'd as we pass'd, but now th' infernal fire  
Ken'd from afar, his port majestic, shew'd  
"There fills the Foe of Man his dire abode,  
Go! and may Heav'n thy sinking soul inspire."

\* He spoke—the gloomy chief in Hades fear'd,  
'Midst plaintive shrieks, and warring winds, appear'd  
While nature thro' my nerves convulsive shook.

Now palsies seiz'd my agonizing frame,  
And glowing now I felt the fever's flame,  
While life and death by turns my limbs forsook.

\* Half from the central gulph he seem'd to spring,  
But Phlegras giant brood, and Babel's king  
To pigmies sunk before the Stygian lord.

Less to the monarch of the frozen main  
They seem'd, than I to that gigantic train,  
When late my suppliant pray'r their aid implor'd.

\* If his meridian glories ere he fell  
Equal'd his horrible eclipse in Hell,  
No brighter Seraph led the heav'nly host.

And now, a tenant of the frozen tide,  
The Rebel justly merits to preside  
O'er all the horrors of the Stygian coast.

\* Six shadowy wings invest his shoulders wide,  
A Gorgon face appear'd on either side,  
And one before that seem'd with rage to burn.  
Rancour with sullen hue the next o'ercaст,  
And Envy's jaundic'd look disdain'd (*disdain'd*) the last  
With Grief, that seem'd at others' joy to mourn.

\* He wav'd his sail-broad wings, and woke the storm,  
Cocytus shudder'd thro' her tribes deform,  
That felt the freezing pow'r in ev'ry gale.  
Keen, polar blasts around his pinions fleet,  
And o'er the region sift th' eternal fleet,  
And mould, with many a gust, the beating hail.

\* Disguis'd in gore, the gloomy Chieftain stood,  
From ev'ry mouth distill'd the streaming blood,  
And lamentations loud and piercing cries  
Were heard within—His triple jaws divide,  
And shew his deadly fangs on either side,  
And each a sinner's blood in crimson dyes.

\* We saw the pris'ners force their bloody way,  
We saw his marble jaws with deadly sway,  
At once descend and crush them in their flight.  
Half seen again, the wretch for mercy calls,  
High-pois'd again, the pondrous engine falls,  
And churns their quiv'ring limbs with stern delight.

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The prisoners alluded to in the last stanzas are Judas Iscariot, Brutus, and Cassius; and from the odd, and not very candid assortment, we may suppose that Dante, at the time of writing them, had disclaimed the republican party, and attached himself to the emperor. Their peculiar situation will probably recall to mind the six pilgrims in the mouth of Garagantua. However ridiculous that reflection may be, we cannot but feel our minds strongly agitated by the wild and dreadful description. Algarotti talked of the *gigantic sublimity* of Milton: the phrase with equal propriety might be applied to Dante. The passages, where Satan is said to ‘lye floating many a rood \*,’ ‘Prone on the flood extended long and large,’—And where he is described as no less than ‘Archangel ruin’d †,’ are evidently borrowed from the Tuscan bard. The six wings here attributed to him, are transferred by Milton to Raphael ‡; an idea that might probably be taken by either poet from a description of the seraphims in Isaiah, ch. vi. ver. 2.

With some degree of reluctance, not unmixed with disgust at its long-continued scenes of terror, we quit this truly original and singular poem. Annexed to it is a Treatise containing an extract from Scott’s Christian Life, in which his ideas of a future state are compared with those of Dante. The publication concludes with a specimen of a new translation of the ORLANDO FURIOSO. The measure is the same as that used by Spenser in the Fairy Queen; which, we think, is well adapted to give an idea of the nature of the original; its manner is often happily caught by the translator. He informs us that he has completed the whole poem, and intends offering it to the public, should these detached passages obtain approbation. Some lines are not so correct as might be expected in a specimen, which appears on the whole inferior in ease and harmony, though not in strength and animation, to the elegant version of Mr. Hoole.

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**M**R. Herschell is a considerable contributor to this part of the volume; and his communications add a value to a collection of papers frequently important and useful.

Art. XIX. On the remarkable Appearances at the Polar Regions of the Planet Mars, the Inclination at its Axis, the Position of its Poles, and its spheroidical Figure; with a few

\* Book i. l. 194.

† Book i. l. 593.

‡ Book v. l. 277.

Hints relating to its real Diameter and Atmosphere. By William Herschel, Esq. F. R. S.—The spots, on the surface of Mars, are too inconsiderable to determine the situation and inclination of its axis. Mr. Herschell therefore fixed on two bright spots, near the poles; the northern, in latitude  $77^{\circ}$ ; the southern, in latitude  $81^{\circ} 52'$ , or more nearly polar. The north pole of Mars is directed to  $17^{\circ} 47'$ , of Pisces, and the inclination of the axis to the ecliptic amounts to  $59^{\circ}. 42''$ . The polar spots are not constant, though without any very considerable variation: our author thinks that, as Mars resembles the earth in many important particulars, we may readily suppose them, mountains of ice and snow. It is remarkable that they seem to decrease, after the Martial summer, in each hemisphere, and to have enlarged when they again turn to the sun. Mars, like the earth and Jupiter, is well known to be flattened at the poles. This appearance was carefully examined and measured: the corrected proportion of the equatorial to the polar diameter, was as 1355 to 1272, that is nearly as 16 to 15. The equatorial diameter of Mars, reduced to the mean distance of the sun, is  $9'' 8'''$ ; and it enjoys the advantage of a considerable atmosphere. Mr. Herschell's observations do not confirm the vast extent which some authors have ascribed to it.

Art. XX. A description of the Teeth of the *Anarhichas Lupus* Linnæi, and of those of the *Chætodon Nigricans* of the same Author; to which is added, an Attempt to prove that the Teeth of cartilaginous Fishes are perpetually renewed. By Mr. William Andree, Surgeon.—The *anarhichas lupus* has two or three rows of teeth, besides the external ones calculated to seize its prey. The substance is very hard and uniform, and we may add, that it is consequently best fitted for forming artificial teeth, since it may be cut into any shape, and, from its density, is neither apt to decay or grow yellow. The change of colour, in other bones, generally depends on the degenerated fluids oozing through the substance. The teeth of the *chætodon* seem to be transparent; but they cannot be properly seen without a microscope. They then appear marked with black lines, and consist of a cylindrical body fixed into the jaw; above which they spread out into a broad and rather flat surface; the edges of which (i. e. of each tooth) are serrated, and divided into twelve or thirteen denticuli. Our author thinks, that this fish is misplaced in the *Systema Naturæ*, since one of the generic distinctions is '*dentes flexiles*.' We have some doubt, whether the individual examined by Mr. Andree is really the *chætodon nigricans*. From a fact which occurred to him in the dissection of a large shark, there is great reason to think, that the posterior teeth of this species, and probably

probably of all cartilagnous fishes, are destined to supply the place of the anterior ones, which are broken, dropt out, or worn away. The sharp bone of a sting-ray had been driven through the successive rows of teeth, and had destroyed the corresponding angles of all the joining teeth. It is well known that the posterior teeth are soft and membranous.

Art. XXI. Abstract of a Register of the Barometer, Thermometer, and Rain, at Lyndon, in Rutland, 1783. By Thomas Barker, Esq.—The remarkable circumstance of this year was the dry haze, which appeared generally in Europe, and continued, in many places, two or three months. On the whole, it was not a wet year, yet at Selbourn, in Hampshire, 33.71 inches of rain fell. Thunder and other electrical phenomena were very frequent.

Art. XXII. On the Period of the Changes of Light in the Star Algol. By John Goodricke, Esq.—The chief object of this paper is, to ascertain the periods of the changes of the star's light, with greater accuracy, and to confirm the late observations, by some corresponding ones of Flamsteed.

Art. XXIII. Experiments and Observations on the Terra Ponderosa, &c. By William Withering, M. D.—The terra ponderosa, in a pure state, for we have been accustomed to call every substance pure, when united with fixed air alone and contaminated with little other extraneous matter, was not discovered in the form of a native fossil, till Mr. Boulton shewed a piece of it to Dr. Withering, procured from Aston-moor lead mine. A hundred parts of this spar contains 78.6 of the pure earth, 20.8 of air, and 6 of marmor. metallicum. We shall soon see that, of the last substance about two-thirds are the same earth, closely united with one-third of vitriolic acid. Some of our author's observations are worth extracting.

‘ The terra ponderosa, when precipitated from an acid by means of a mild fixed alkaly (D. 1. 2.) readily burns to lime; and this lime-water proves a very nice test of the presence of vitriolic acid. E. 2. 3.

‘ It is very remarkable, that the terra ponderosa spar, in its native state, will not burn to lime. In the lower degrees of heat it suffers no change, as was before observed, besides the loss of its transparency. When urged with a stronger fire, it melts and unites to the crucible, but does not become caustic.

‘ I buried it in charcoal-dust in a covered crucible, and then exposed it to a pretty strong heat; but it did not part with its air.

‘ May we not conjecture, then, that as caustic lime cannot unite to fixed air without the intervention of moisture, and as this spar seems to contain no water in its composition, that it is the want of water which prevents the fixed air assuming its elastic

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tic aerial state? This supposition becomes still more probable, if we observe that when the solution of the spar in an acid is precipitated by a mild alkaly, C. 1. 2. some water enters into the composition of the precipitate, for it weighs the same as before it was dissolved, and yet contains only twenty ounce measures of fixed air, whilst the native spar contained twenty-five ounce measures; so that there is an addition of weight equal to that of five ounce measures of fixable air, or three three-fourth grains to be accounted for, which can only arise from the water; and this precipitate, thus united to water, readily loses its aerial acid in the fire, E. 1.

In the observations on his analysis, there are many other valuable chemical remarks; but we can only mention, that he finds the caustic terra ponderosa has less affinity to the nitrous and marine acids, than the pure alkalies. In the dry way, it has less affinity even to the vitriolic acid than the *vegetable* fixed alkali.

Our author next examines the terra ponderosa vitriolata, found in Alston-moor mines. It is the marmor metallicum of Cronstedt, and a hundred parts contain 32.8 of pure acid, and 67.2 of pure earth. There is reason to think, from Dr. Withering's experiments, that this substance may prove an useful flux.

The third section describes a variety of the same substance, found in the Derbyshire mines, and called the Derbyshire cauk. Of this, a hundred parts contain 99.5 of marmor metallicum, and 0.5 of calciform iron. Another variety, from Shropshire, in the same quantity, contains 2.3 of the iron in a similar state. Dr. Withering seems to think, that the terra ponderosa claims a place between the earths and metals, as, in some properties, it resembles both; But that the specific gravity of its compounds arises from their containing no water.

Art. XXIV. Observations du Passage de Mercure sur la Disque du Soleil le 12 Novembre, 1782, faites à l'Observatoire Royale de Paris, avec des Réflexions sur un Effet qui se fait sentir dans ses mêmes Observations semblable à celui d'une Réfraction dans l'Atmosphère de Mercure. Par Johann Wilhelm Wallot, Membre de l'Académie Electorale de Sciences & Belles Lettres du Manheim, &c.—Observations on the Passage of Mercury over the Sun's Disk, the 12th of November, 1782, made at the Observatory at Paris; with Reflections on an Effect, perceived in these Observations, similar to what would be produced by a Refraction in the Atmosphere of Mercury. By Joann Wilhelm Wallot.—Mercury first touched the sun's limb at 2<sup>h</sup> 56', and the center of the planet was on it in two minutes more. The center was on the sun's limb in its exit,

exit, at  $4^h 20'$ , and the planet disappeared in little more than  $2''$ . We cannot follow our author's astronomical calculations in the subsequent part; but he observes, if the middle of the passage, separately determined from a comparison of the internal and external contacts, of the entrance and exit differ, the difference must probably depend on an atmosphere. This quantity was found to amount to  $26.4'$ , and consequently  $0.276''$  is allowed for the horizontal refraction of the atmosphere. The same variations were found, in the transit of Venus, to amount only to  $8'$  or  $9''$ ; consequently  $0.205''$  were allowed for her horizontal refraction. A remarkable difference in density, when the heat to which they are exposed is considered; but, at the same time, apparently well calculated for the existence of inhabitants! We ought however to add, that these observations must be frequently repeated, before their results will be established as probable: they are at present little more than suspicions.

Art. XXV. Thoughts on the constituent Parts of Water and of Dephlogisticated Air. By Mr. James Watt.—Art. XXVI. Sequel to the Thoughts on the constituent Parts of Water and Dephlogisticated Air. By Mr. James Watt.—Mr. Watt concludes, or at least questions, whether he is not authorised to conclude, from some of Dr. Priestley's experiments,

‘That water is composed of dephlogisticated air and phlogiston, deprived of part of their latent or elementary heat; that dephlogisticated or pure air is composed of water deprived of its phlogiston, and united to elementary heat and light; and that the latter are contained in it in a latent state, so as not to be sensible to the thermometer or to the eye; and if light be only a modification of heat, or a circumstance attending it, or a component part of the inflammable air, then pure or dephlogisticated air is composed of water deprived of its phlogiston and united to elementary heat?’

We have already observed the inconsistencies of even the best chemists, on the subject of phlogiston, and the difference in opinion of others; but the position of Mr. Watt seems to be on a more secure foundation than many late theories. It was an early opinion of Dr. Black, that fixed air was a composition of common air and phlogiston, at a time when this was the only new species of air discovered. After we became acquainted with phlogisticated and inflammable airs, the opinion seems to have been abandoned, though now again revived. We have already mentioned the experiments of Dr. Priestley, which seem to show that fixed air is compounded of dephlogisticated and inflammable airs; and Mr. Watt thinks it probable that fixed differs from phlogisticated air, in containing  
a greater

a greater share of phlogiston. If this be true, and we think it may be supported both by reason and facts, inflammable air must be in the first rank, and phlogisticated air in the last: the one containing the greatest, and the other the least quantity of phlogiston. Dephlogisticated air, on the other hand, he thinks, is produced from water, by any substance which has a stronger attraction for phlogiston than the principle of water, properly enough styled *humor*, to distinguish the *essence* from the *form*. This our author has elucidated by many experiments, which pretty clearly establish this opinion; and it is nearly that of Mr. Cavendish, see page 251. We indeed always concluded, from the facts already in our hands, that the air obtained from the different calces, by means of nitrous acid, was not produced, but only separated in a purer form. This opinion we have had frequent occasion to repeat; and are of course pleased to see it more firmly established.

The first fact established by Mr. Watt is, that when the pure air is obtained, the acid, however pure when first added, became phlogisticated, and this phlogistication constantly occurred, on repeating the affusion of pure acid on the same minium. But, on repeating the experiments with accuracy, large quantities of pure air were produced, with a very small loss of weak acid. Thirty-six ounce measures of air were procured by means of four hundred and eighty grains of weak dephlogisticated nitrous acid, and the whole acid was recovered except five grains.

The paper concludes with some observations on the systems of Mr. Scheele and others, with some 'general reasoning on the subject.' As the water produced, on firing pure and inflammable air, occasioned the other experiments, we are informed that the heat produced is much greater than is sufficient to convert the water into steam. As no direct experiments have been made to ascertain the fact exactly, the author assumes those of Lavoisier and De la Place, in the last volume of the Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences. In these it appears that the heat, extricated during the combustion of inflammable and dephlogisticated airs, was very great. One Paris ounce, (somewhat larger than an English) of dephlogisticated air, decomposed by burning phosphorus, gave 9265°.5 of Fahrenheit. It does not seem of great consequence, or to vary the experiment considerably, from what source the phlogiston is procured. The second paper only relates to some circumstances necessary to be attended to by those who wish to repeat Mr. Watt's experiments.

XXVII. An Attempt to compare and connect the Thermometer for strong Fire, described in Vol. LXXII. of the Philosophical

Philosophical Transactions, with the common Mercatorial ones. By Josiah Wedgwood, F. R. S.—It is of consequence to connect the scale of Mr. Wedgwood's thermometer with that in common use. This is now performed in a dextrous and accurate manner by the intervention of another. It appears, from this comparison, that one of Wedgwood's degrees is equal to  $130^{\circ}$  of Fahrenheit's scale. Mercury boils at about 600 of Fahrenheit, or rather below that point. Red heat, visible in the day light, is found to be at the 1077th degree, nearly at the point where it was fixed by Dr. Black and Sir Isaac Newton. But the extremity of the scale, or Wedgwood's 240th degree, is at  $32277^{\circ}$  of Fahrenheit. The least welding heat of iron, usually reckoned about  $5000^{\circ}$ , is now found to be  $12777^{\circ}$ . What an immense scale! From freezing water to vital heat is scarcely the FIVE HUNDREDTH part of it; ten times that quantity may be taken away, in the higher degrees, without occasioning a sensible difference. In the nicer chemical manufactures, particularly in enamelling, this gage of heat must be extremely valuable.

The appendix to this article contains some curious experiments, by Mr. Wedgwood, on thawing ice. He repeated Lavoisier's experiments; but found, on dropping the heated thermometer piece into pounded ice, that very little of the water, necessarily produced, appeared in that form. It seemed to have been absorbed by the surrounding ice as by a sponge; but it became also ice, and connected the separate molecules with considerable force. The reason of the absorption is obvious; and the author accounts for the freezing, from vapour requiring a less degree of heat, to fix it in a solid form, than water. But this is only a part of the cause. Melting ice is remarkably greedy of heat; and indeed every body in a capacity to absorb heat, and to convert it from a sensible to a latent state, attracts it so powerfully as to separate it from any other body. We want no additional evidence of this quality, than the simple fact, that *all* our freezing mixtures, or rather the mixtures which produce cold in the surrounding fluids, effect this change, while they themselves are in a thawing state. Fuming spirit of nitre, poured on snow, always melts it, while it congeals the water round which it is placed. A piece of ice, in the fire, will extinguish it, at a distance to which the water produced cannot reach. Instances of this kind are numerous. Though somewhat must be allowed to the facility with which steam freezes, yet the chief effect seems to be owing to the absorption of the water first produced, and the abstraction of the heat from the continued operation of the hot clay. In the cellar, when the tea-cup froze to the upper part of the ice, while

the rest was in a thawing state, the general cause only operated, viz. the superior attraction of the melting ice, for the heat contained in the vessel.

The necessary length of our observations obliges us to defer the future consideration of this part of the annual volume till another opportunity.

[*To be continued.*]

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*A Dissertation on Milk. By Samuel Ferris, M. D. 8vo. 3s. in Boards. Cadell.*

**T**HIS is one of those essays which obtained the prize-medal of the Harveian Society at Edinburgh, in 1782. The experiments to ascertain the nature of milk are well directed; but the subject has been so frequently examined that it will not easily admit of much new light. Our author indeed found that, in making butter, no air was really generated; what appeared to be such was only air rarefied by the heat raised in the process. This fact acts in a very extensive circle; for the fermentation, raised in making butter, was one of the arguments from which the antagonists to those who deduced animal heat from the friction of the fluids against the sides of the vessels, endeavoured to combat that theory: they attributed this heat to fermentation. But, since the result is scarcely a tertium quid, but rather separated than produced, and one of the constant attendants on fermentation, is wanting, that opposition must be materially weakened. We cannot, at this time, attribute animal heat to motion only; but we see no reason why it may not have some share.

Another part of this Dissertation is, *An Enquiry into the Similarity between Blood and Milk.* The spontaneous separation of each into parts, slightly resembling each other, has influenced some superficial physiologists to conclude, that milk was only blood deprived of its colouring parts; and they thence deduced consequences which materially influenced the practice of physic, and did much harm. It was not one of the least, that the stomachs of hectic and cachectic patients were loaded with too great a quantity of this ready-made blood. Dr. Ferris examines the relation of these fluids experimentally; and, in the most important circumstances, finds little resemblance. We wish that the nature of the milk of carnivorous animals had been more accurately ascertained. Mr. J. Hunter, we have been informed, found the milk of a bitch, which had been some time fed with even putrid flesh, acescent. Dr. Young and Dr. Ferris found it alkalescent; but the latter tells us very candidly, that he determined the point only by the

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change in the colour of syrup of violets; and that, when the syrup was turned red, by only a drop of vitriolic acid, the milk would dilute, without at all changing it. Dr. Young tried the experiment by the juice of the clove July-flowers; and we may now observe, that both trials seem fallacious. The experiment should rather be made on the spontaneous change by fermentation; for it is not without reason, we add, that *fresh* milk is *always* acescent.

The similarity between chyle and milk is more striking, since chyle is an oily fluid. This part is not examined by experiment, because chyle is not easily procured; but the author has, in our opinion, demonstrated, so far as the nature of his evidence will allow, that chyle does not become milk till after it has been changed into blood. In fact, we perceive the greatest anxiety in nature to prevent an unanimalized matter from coming into the veins; for the chyle is mixed with re-fluent, consequently highly animalised lymph, before it arrives at the veins, and is then only admitted by drops. In this case, the separation of chyle, if the resemblance were ever so striking, would be more inexplicable than the function of secretion; while, in reality, it was only to avoid this last difficulty that the similarity was ever supposed.

The medical properties of milk are accurately examined; and we would mention, from this essay, the practice of using enemata of milk in putrid fevers. But perhaps their utility arises from some other effects, besides their nourishing powers. The use of cows milk is much impeded by its richness: it is generally too viscid to be digested by a weak stomach, since it is almost always coagulated, and generally requires to be made thinner by some diluting fluid. Whey is best employed for this purpose, and we have used the whey which is separated by boiling milk with the powder of the bark of cascarilla. In this way a more pleasant drink, and one equally useful with Mead's astringent milk, may be procured. Some milk will not curdle with this bark only, and then a little red wine is to be added. Dr. Ferris's directions on this subject are judicious: he is only not aware that unless the milk is young it is frequently too heavy for weak stomachs.

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*Female Tuition: or, an Address to Mothers, on the Education of their Daughters.* 8vo. 3s. sewed. Murray.

WE need not enlarge on the importance of the subject before us. The very intelligent author has treated it with a suitable attention: he has enforced his opinions with the strongest arguments, and, as even virtue is more lovely when it assumes a beautiful form, has adorned it with a language

guage at once elegant and precise. If there is a defect, it is sometimes in the construction, which seems occasionally to obscure the meaning, and sometimes in the punctuation; but the obscurity is inconsiderable, and the slightest attention, on returning to the passage, removes it. As this is the only error we have discovered, it was necessary to mention it.

The education of daughters will appear of greater consequence, since they may become mothers, and consequently be intrusted with the important task of teaching 'the young idea how to shoot:' it is of more importance, since it seems to be so much neglected. Every form is adapted to the reigning folly, though it be awkward and unsuitable; every decoration is employed equally by the fair and brown; and the polite conversation is one unmeaning string, dictated by the phantom of the day. Yet, from a crowd of this kind, a man of reason and reflection is expected to choose the companion of his retirements, the partaker of his pleasures and pains. It is not surprising that he hesitates in perplexity; for, though some minds may, with native strength, resist the contagion of splendor, the seductions of dissipation; though others may imitate the sun,

'Who doth permit the base contagious clouds  
To smother up his beauty from the world,  
That, when he please to be again himself,  
Being wanted, he may be more wondered at:'

yet with so many chances against drawing the prizes in this adventurous lottery, prudence will decline the hazard. It cannot be expected that this little work, with all its elegance, or the concurring admonitions of its reviewer, who must be contented with bearing the appellation of sour and splenetic, can produce a reformation. Yet there may be some amiable and tender minds, who wish to please; and, ignorant of the proper paths, may have strayed into the beaten ones, seduced by the glare of fashion and the croud of its votaries; these soft untutored souls may be attracted by this new plan, and, aided by the approving monitor within, may dare to be unfashionably good: If any such there be, their's will be all the reward; for the authors, at a distance from the scene, will only have the heart-felt consolation of having meant well.

The subjects of the Essays before us are, 'Maternal Authority, Domestic Attention, Diligence and Activity, Oeconomy, Simplicity, Female Pursuits, Honour, Knowledge, Virtue, and Religion.'

It is not easy to follow our author in every essay, nor indeed would it be proper, since the observations should be read in his own words. In general, his advice is just and rational: it re-

commends ease and cheerfulness, without levity; just observation, without calumny or censoriousness; œconomy, without avarice; simplicity, or rather singleness of heart, and a total absence of affectation either in dress or manner, without deviating into singularity or carelessness; active employments to guard against ennui and its attendant follies. These are some of the more important lessons, but much instruction may be attained from the perusal of this work. We shall now take our leave of it, with thanking the author for his valuable present to the female world, and selecting a specimen for the reader's own decision.

The following extract is given, as it can be with less violence separated from the rest. There are many equally deserving of this honour.

‘ All social happiness consists in a mutual exchange of heart. The most infallible way of discovering the secret of others, is to affect none. This is a key which unlocks the closest tempers, disconcerts all the precautions of reserve, and disarms taciturnity of its silence. Be open to all, and all will be open to you. There is no freedom so pleasing, so noble, so divine, as that inspired by conscious rectitude. It is beneath the dignity of truth, in any case, to borrow the crutches, or wrap herself up in the vizor of falsehood. But the moment we assume an air or look of distance or distrust, every thing strikes our fancies as dark and deformed. We are suspected in proportion as we suspect, and justly considered as criminal, from our solicitude to be hid.

‘ No woman is superior to the opinion of the world, who seldom consults, and never prefers, that of her own heart. And she only, who is conscious of that independence which simplicity inspires and sustains, will not, on any account, be debauched by the trappings of pride or the refinements of luxury; but in every situation, will prove herself greatly and honourably superior to the pitiful chicanery and evasions of the vermin around her. This keeps her heart in perpetual lustre, and the sight is too rare not to attract more curiosity and impertinence, than may at all times suit her temper or convenience. But there is no worth, which results not from exertion and trial. We cannot be good, without struggling, or vicious, without yielding.

‘ Heaven has not a finer or more perfect emblem on earth, than a woman of genuine simplicity. She affects no graces, which are not inspired by sincerity. Her opinions result not from passion and fancy, but from reason and experience. Candour and humility give expansion to her heart. She struggles for no kind of chimerical credit, disclaims the appearance of every quality, which is not hers, and is in all things just what she seems, and others would be thought. Nature, not art, is  
the



the great standard of her manners, and her exterior wears no varnish, or embellishment, which is not the genuine signature of an open, undesigning, and benevolent mind. It is not in her power, because not in her nature, to hide, with a fawning air, and a mellow voice, her aversion or contempt, where her delicacy is hurt, her temper ruffled, or her feelings insulted. It is nothing to her, either what the invidious think, or the ill-natured say, or what opinion, or remark, her character undergoes among the vicious, or the vain, who submit not to the least interruption in their habits and foibles; or among the gay, where levity and luxury only are esteemed; or among the rich or great, who so generally and absurdly value every woman, not by the virtues of her heart, but by the extent of her fortune.

In the eyes of pedants, prudes, and hypocrites, who croud the fantastic circles of fashion, and to whom dullness is wisdom; pertness, wit; sarcasm, pleasantry; and servility, grace; such a character as this must appear formal, and awkward. She says what she thinks, and does what she feels to be right, and despises the trite expedient of grafting her foibles, or building a name on virtues not her own. Honesty, the unaffected badge of intrinsic goodness, and real elevation of heart, is dearer to her than life, and one of the chief things which makes her in love with it.

Ready, as she is, to overlook the foibles of all, she connives at the crimes of none. By this means, her honesty sometimes gets the name of rudeness; her plain-dealing, of impertinence; her candour, of severity; and her seriousness, of affectation.

*Poems upon several Occasions, English, Italian, and Latin, with Translations. By John Milton. (Concluded, from page 328.)*

WE have followed the very able commentator, in the more important parts of this volume; but the smaller poems, which have shared his attention, deserve also some of our's. It is time to compensate for the general neglect of succeeding ages; and though, at this period, the value of these poems is lessened from the obscurity of the allusions, yet enough remains to save them from oblivion. In the lesser compositions, we ought to look for the picture of the man; in the others, we perceive only the poet. In Milton there is much to commend: his youth was amiable, and his age respectable. A benevolent heart is cheered by pleasing prospects, either of nature or the fortune of his friends: Milton expands at the return of spring; he retains his affection for his friends and his tutor; and has even complimented, for he was not always a puritan, a bishop. To love, that humanizer of hearts, he was not insensible. He continues to feel the charms of Leonora, in a more ungenial clime, and retains his affection for the child

of fancy,' whose 'wild wood notes' so often delighted him. In his old age, he supported his misfortunes with dignity and constancy. He was probably favoured by neglect, since, if he had been attended to, he might not have easily escaped; but neglect to him was a punishment, which he only eluded by appealing to posterity, and entertaining a pleasing idea of the decisions of a more impartial age. In the interval of these periods, calumny has found something to dislike. It is a subject of blame, that he assisted the usurpation of Cromwell by his pen; as a tutor, he is said to have been severe; as a husband and father, harsh and tyrannical. For political opinions, no one should be blamed, because they are often involuntary; and the charge against his domestic conduct must be allowed, but it may be palliated by the custom of the times. When corporal correction was enjoined as a punishment, at the university, before the age of twenty; when Milton himself was probably punished in that way, it is likely the faults of his nephews, in earlier life, were not wholly exempted from it. The following note, which relates to this circumstance, contains some new information.

'This (viz. the Tetrachordon) was one of Milton's books, published in consequence of his divorce from his first wife, Mary the daughter of Mr. Richard Powell, of Forresthill, four miles from Oxford, a gentleman of good family and repute. They were married at Forresthill in 1643, where the wedding was kept. About a month after marriage, she withdrew herself from his house, and returned to her friends in disgust. After a separation of four years, during which time Milton wrote more than one treatise in favour of divorce, a happy reunion took place. Mr. Powell's mansion still remains; in which Mr. Mickle, the ingenious translator of the *Luciad*, lately made a search, with a view of finding some of Milton's letters or papers. There is an old paper-room or deserted study in the house, where are many obsolete family writings, with letters to and from Mr. Powell, who was a great royalist in the rebellion. One of the letters is a requisition, dated about 1645, from sir Thomas Glemham, governor of Oxford-garrison, and late a gentleman commoner of Trinity college, to Mr. Powell, to send a large quantity of winnowed wheat into the city of Oxford, then besieged. At length he discovered a small paper-book, in which were written four or five poems, of the handwriting of about the close of the reign of James the First. One of them is the copy of a well-known old English ballad. The rest I never saw before. Some of them have considerable merit, but none seem to be the compositions of Milton. It is however likely they were left there in consequence of Milton's intercourse and connections with the family. The Powells were sharers of abbey-land in Oxfordshire. They were seated in the dis-

dissolved monastery of Sandford, near Oxford; and one of them built the Gothic manerial stone-house, now standing, at that village, in the reign of queen Elizabeth. Wood mentions John Powell, a great cavalier, living at Sandford in 1661. *Diarie*, vol. ii. p. 174. But this was not Milton's father-in-law. Richardson justly conjectures, that the circumstances of Milton's reconciliation to this lady are beautifully shadowed in a like scene between Adam and Eve, *Parad. Lost*, b. x. 937. But none have observed, that Milton alludes to some of the particulars of this marriage, and its consequences, in the following speech of Samson, *Samf. Agon.* 219.

“The first I saw at Timna, and she pleas’d  
Me, not my parents, that I sought to wed  
The daughter of an infidel: they knew not,  
That what I mention’d was of God, &c. —  
She proving false, &c.” —

The chorus had just observed, v. 215.

“—— I oft have heard men wonder  
Why thou should’st wed Philistian women, rather  
Than of thine own tribe fairer, or as fair.”

To say nothing of the dissatisfaction she had conceived at her husband's unsocial and philosophical system of life, so different from the convivial plenty and cheerfulness of her father's family, it is probable that the quarrel was owing to party. But when Cromwell's faction prevailed, Mr. Powell, who had taken an active part in assisting the king during the siege of Oxford, finding his affairs falling into distress, for prudential reasons strove to bring about an agreement between Milton and his daughter. Aubrey says, that she could not bear to hear the outcries of her husband's nephews, his pupils, whom he frequently corrected too severely.

This is not the only instance, in which Mr. Warton supposes the life of Milton may be illustrated, from the *Samson Agonistes*.

A mind like Milton's, vigorous, learned, and comprehensive, must have always felt its own strength, and would occasionally start into future times, and anticipate its rising fame. This is particularly conspicuous in his lesser poems, and is an excuseable pride. When he deprecates the violence of the army, which was expected to assault the city, and requests the general to spare his house; he tells him, that he

“—can spread thy name o'er lands and seas  
Whatever clime the sun's bright circle warms.”

The miscellaneous poems consist of sonnets, epitaphs, and translations in English; sonnets in Italian; elegies and epigrams in Latin; and, in Greek, the translation of a psalm, a satirical address to the engraver of his picture, and the phi-

lofopher's address to a king, who had unjustly condemned him. These several poems Mr. Warton has illustrated with an attention at least equal to their merits. Milton is not always excellent; but he is never despicable: his poetic ardour does not constantly illuminate by its splendour; but it never contaminates by its smoke. His Latin poetry is the production of his juvenile days. Mr. Warton has observed, that Ovid is his model; and he is just in this remark, for Ovid will be the favourite of a youthful mind. Our author has not only caught Ovid's ease and freedom of versification; but he has copied his fancies, and the conceits frequent in the Latin poet, but more so in the succeeding Italians. From this censure, the verses sent with Cromwell's picture to Christina, may be excepted: they are manly, energetic, and elegant. We should agree with Mr. Warton in opinion, and attribute these verses to Marvel, if the College Exercise, avowedly Milton's, was not equally remarkable for vigour of expression, dignity of sentiment, and elevation of thought. We shall however transcribe the short passage in which Mr. Warton delivers his opinion.

'Dr. Newton, whose opinion is weighty, ascribes these lines to Milton, as coinciding with his department of Latin secretary to Cromwell. See also Birch's Life of Milton, p. 62. Toland, by whom they were first printed, from common report, indecisively gives them either to Milton or to Andrew Marvell. Life, p. 38. Prose-works, vol. i. p. 38. Tol. I suspect, that Milton's habit of facility in elegiac latinity had long ago ceased: and I am inclined to attribute them to Marvell, so good a scholar, as to be thought a fit assistant to Milton in the Latin secretaryship, and who, as Wood says, "was very intimate and conversant with that person." Ath. Oxon. ii. 818. Again, he calls Marvell, "sometimes one of John Milton's companions." Ibid. p. 817. And he adds, that Marvel was "cried up as the main witmonger surviving to the fanatical party." In other words, Marvell satirised the dissipations and profligate amours of Charles the Second, with much wit and freedom.'

The 'Epitaphium Damonis' has been censured by Dr. Johnson, as the 'common, but childish imitation of pastoral life;' yet, says Mr. Warton, 'there are some new and natural country images, and the common topics are often recommended by a novelty of elegant expression.' Perhaps it is a better apology, that 'the pastoral form was the fault of the poet's times;' but that Milton occasionally breaks from the shackles, and 'cannot be a shepherd long.' There are many passages similar to some in Lycidas; but the similarity is probably derived from both having been copied from the same original. The simplicity and unvaried innocency, which we so common-ly

ly connect with pastoral life, bestows an inexpressible softness on every image drawn from it. Shepherds are supposed to weep from affection only, for they shed not the tears of remorse; and the genuine expressions of the heart are always captivating. This may be alleged in favour of pastoral imitations, but the force of the argument must be ultimately drawn from the early impressions we have received from classic models. Reason may refine us, for a time into insensibility; but the heart resumes her throne, and recurs with pleasure to those days, when she expanded to receive every trait of tenderness, and when each stroke of passion sunk too deep to be erased by the philosophy of riper years.

On the Italian poetry, it would not be right for us to decide on our own judgment: we are told by Mr. Warton, that Milton was so well skilled in Italian, that at Florence the *Crusca*, an academy instituted for recovering and preserving the purity of the Florentine language, often consulted him on its critical niceties. This is the strongest evidence in his favour, without adding his residence in Italy, his familiarity with men of learning in that country, and his fondness for Italian poets. For love-verses, says our commentator, his sonnets have a remarkable air of gravity and dignity.

The translations of the psalms are distinguished by the force of the language rather than its elegance. The mind of Milton was magnificent: he could seldom stoop to little things; and, when he attempted them, they seemed but extracts from a greater work. Even at seventeen, when he wrote a copy of Latin verses on the fifth of November, it contained a description of the council, conspiracy, and expedition of Satan: it was in fact a first sketch of a portion of *Paradise Lost*. The other translations are executed with his usual strength, sometimes with its attendant harshness. Those, which have been taken from the *DEFENSIO*, we are told by Mr. Warton, are not Milton's, but are found in Richard Washington's translation of that work. In the edition before us, they are properly distinguished.

The commentary on these different kinds of poetry is generally satisfactory; and the obscure passages are well illustrated. Even the fanaticism of the times, though the greater number of the smaller pieces were written in our author's youth, is illustrated from forgotten authors, long since covered with dust, which we wish no more to disturb. It is the worst employment of the human mind, to search after those reveries and eccentricities, which may be more advantageously consigned to oblivion; and, instead, of ascertaining what is really true, to enquire after what men, and these often not the wisest, have

have thought. Yet, as some of Milton's lines, even in the reign of Presbyterianism, complain of the violence offered to conscience, we shall explain the cause, in the words of the intelligent commentator.

'In railing at establishments, Milton not only condemned episcopacy. He thought even the simple institutions of the new reformation too rigid and arbitrary for the natural freedom of conscience. He contended for that sort of individual or personal religion, by which every man is to be his own priest. When these verses were written, which form an irregular sonnet, Presbyterianism was triumphant; and the Independents and the churchmen joined in one common complaint against a want of toleration. The church of Calvin had now its heretics. Milton's haughty temper brooked no human controul. Even the parliamentary hierarchy was too coercive for one who acknowledged only king Jesus. His froward and refining philosophy was contented with no species of carnal policy. Conformity of all sorts was slavery. He was persuaded, that the modern Presbyterian was as much calculated for persecution and oppression as the ancient bishop.'

We had another motive for introducing this passage, to give a more plausible reason for Milton's adulation of Cromwell.

'This may be thought inconsistent with that zeal which he professed for liberty: for Cromwell's assumption of the protectorate, even if we allow the lawfulness of the rebellion, was palpably a violent usurpation of power over the rights of the nation, and was reprobated even by the republican party. Milton, however, in various parts of the *Defensio secunda*, gives excellent admonitions to Cromwell, and with great spirit, freedom, and eloquence, not to abuse his new authority; yet not without an intermixture of the grossest adulation. I am of opinion, that he is writing a panegyric to the memory of Cromwell and his deliverance, instead of reflecting on the recent blessings of the Restoration, in a chorus in *Samson Agonistes*, v. 1263.

.. " Oh how comely it is, and how reviving,  
To the spirits of just men long oppress'd :  
When God into the hands of their deliverer  
Puts invincible might  
To quell the mighty of the earth, th' oppressor,  
The brute and boisterous force of violent men  
Hardy and industrious to support  
Tyrannick power, but raging to pursue  
The righteous, and all such as honour truth ;  
He all their ammunition  
And feats of war defeats,  
With plain heroic magnitude of mind  
And celestial vigour arm'd,  
Their armories and magazines contemns, &c."

We would however beg leave to suggest, that Cromwell was the champion of the Independents; and, in the struggle for reformation, when the presbyterians had gained the ascendancy, the advocates for a 'natural freedom of conscience' found, that they had only changed their sovereigns, without any one considerable advantage on the side of liberty. It was natural therefore to look up to Cromwell, as the source of freedom, and the religious toleration expected from him, might compensate for his secular usurpation. We see, from the quotation just now transcribed, that Milton, secure in what he thought of the greatest consequence, endeavoured to moderate the evil which might be expected from the means employed to attain it.

The account of Sir Henry Vane, the biographical anecdotes of Milton's father, of Ellwood, the poet's friend, of Lawes, of Marvel, and some others, are interesting and entertaining; but we cannot mention them more particularly, for this article draws near to its conclusion, and we must still mention some circumstances, more nearly related to the poet. Mr. Warton gives some account of the different pictures of Milton; but, as much has been said on this subject, we shall only transcribe the conclusion, because it conveys some new intelligence.

'Faithorne's is the most common representation of Milton's head; Either that, or the Onslow picture, are the heads in Bentley's, and Tickell's, and Newton's editions. All by Vertue. Milton's daughter Deborah above mentioned, the daughter of his first wife, and his amanuensis, told Vertue, that "her father was of a fair complexion, a little red in the cheeks, and light brown lank hair." Letter to Mr. Christian, *ut sup.* MS. Brit. Mus.

'Since these imperfect and hasty notices were thrown together, sir Joshua Reynolds has purchased a picture of Milton, for one hundred guineas. It was brought to sir Joshua last summer by one Mr. Hunt, a printseller and picture-dealer, who bought it of a broker; but the broker does not know the person of whom he had it. The portrait is dressed in black, with a band; and the painter's mark and date are "S. C. 1653." This is written on the back. "This picture belonged to Deborah Milton, who was her father's amanuensis: at her death was sold to sir W. Davenant's family. It was painted by Mr. Samuel Cooper, who was painter to Oliver Cromwell, at the time Milton was Latin secretary to the protector. The painter and poet were near of the same age; Milton was born in 1608, and died in 1674, and Cooper was born in 1609, and died in 1672, and were companions and friends till death parted them. Several encouragers and lovers of the fine arts at that time wanted this picture; particularly lord Dorset, John Somers, esquire, sir Robert Howard, Dryden, Atterbury, Dr. Aldrich,

Aldrich, and sir John Denham." Lord Dorset was probably the lucky man; for this seems to be the very picture for which, as I have before observed, Vertue wished Prior to search in lord Dorset's collection. Sir Joshua Reynolds says, "The picture is admirably painted, and with such a character of nature, that I am perfectly sure it was a striking likeness. I have now a distinct idea of the countenance of Milton, which cannot be got from any of the other pictures that I have seen. It is perfectly preserved, which shews that it has been shut up in some drawer; if it had been exposed to the light, the colours would long before this have vanished."

As we approach to the last scene, we shall only mention from Mr. Warton, or rather from Aubrey, the celebrated dreamer, that our poet 'was buried, at the upper end in S. Gyles Cripple-gate chancell. *Mem.* His stone is now 1681, removed; for about two yeeres since, the two steppes to the communion table were rayed. I ghesse Jo. Speed and he lie together.' There was a stone in 1725, traditionally supposed to cover his remains; though no inscription had been visible for forty years before. But thou wantest no 'rude memorial.'

'Thou in our wonder and astonishment,  
Hast built thyself a live long monument.'

The epitaph was probably erased; for those who laid down the stone, may be supposed to have carried their affection a little farther, and to have endeavoured, 'twas all they could, to have conveyed his name to posterity. In future ages, the ages into which Milton was rapt, when most anxious for fame, his monument has been raised in that venerable repository of kings and prelates; and the following lines, which we shall extract, for their literary merit, were written for that purpose, by Dr. George, provost of Eton.

"Augusti regum cineres, sanctæque favillæ;  
Heroum vosque O, vix tanti nominis, umbræ!  
Parcite, quod vestris infensum regibus olim  
Sedibus infertur nomen, liceatque supremis  
Funeribus finire odium: Mors obruat iras.  
Nunc sub fœderibus coeant felicibus una  
Libertas, et jus sacri inviolabile sceptri.  
Rege sub Augusto fas sit laudare Catonem."

We must now leave the commentary on Milton as a poet; his political writings are not the objects of Mr. Warton; yet in the conclusion, his observations deserve our attention, and we shall consequently select them.

'Upon the whole, and with regard to his political writings at large, even after the prejudices of party have subsided,  
Milton,



Milton, I believe, has found no great share of favour, of applause, or even of candour, from distant generations. His *si quid meremur*, in the sense here belonging to the words, has been too fully ascertained by the mature determination of time. Toland, about thirty years after the Restoration, thought Milton's prose-works of sufficient excellence and importance to be collected and printed in one body. But they were neglected and soon forgotten. Of late years, some attempts have been made to revive them, with as little success. At present they are almost unknown. If they are ever inspected, it is perhaps occasionally by the commentator on Milton's verse, as affording materials for comparative criticism, or from motives of curiosity only, as the productions of the writer of *Comus* and *Paradise Lost*, and not so much for any independent value of their own. In point of doctrine, they are calculated to annihilate the very foundations of our civil and religious establishment, as it now subsists: they are subversive of our legislature, and our species of government. In condemning tyranny, he strikes at the bare existence of kings; in combating superstition, he decries all public religion. These discourses hold forth a system of politics, at present as unconstitutional, and almost as obsolete, as the nonsense of passive obedience: and in this view, we might just as well think of re-publishing the pernicious theories of the kingly bigot James, as of the republican usurper Oliver Cromwell. Their style is perplexed, pedantic, poetical, and unnatural: abounding in enthusiastic effusions, which have been mistaken for eloquence and imagination. In the midst of the most solemn rhapsodies, which would have shone in a fast-sermon before Cromwell, he sometimes indulges a vein of jocularity; but his witticisms are as awkward as they are unsuitable, and Milton never more misunderstands the nature and bias of his genius, than when he affects to be arch either in prose or verse. His want of deference to superiours teaches him to write without good manners; and, when we consider his familiar acquaintance with the elegancies of antiquity, with the orators and historians of Greece and Rome, few writers will be found to have made so slender a sacrifice to the graces. From some of these strictures, I must except the *Treatise on Education*, and the *Aereopagitica*, which are written with a tolerable degree of facility, simplicity, parity, and perspicuity; and the latter, some tedious historical digressions, and some little sophistry excepted, is the most close, conclusive, comprehensive, and decisive vindication of the liberty of the press that has yet appeared, on a subject on which it is difficult to decide between the licentiousness of scepticism and sedition, and the arbitrary exemptions of authority. In the mean time, Milton's prose-works, I suspect, were never popular: he deeply engaged in most of the ecclesiastical disputes of his times, yet he is seldom quoted or mentioned by his contemporaries, either of the Presbyterian or Independent persuasion: even by Richard

Baxter, pastor of Kidderminster, a judicious and voluminous advocate on the side of the Presbyterians, who vehemently censures and opposes several of his coadjutors in the cause of church-independency, he is passed over in profound silence. For his brethren the Independents he seems to have been too learned and unintelligible. In 1652, sir Robert Filmer, in a general attack on the recent antimonarchical writers, bestows but a very short and slight refutation on his politics. It appears from the Censure of the Rota, a pamphlet published in 1660, said to be fabricated by Harrington's club, that even his brother party-writers ridiculed the affectations and absurdities of his style. Lord Monboddo is the only modern critic who ranks Milton as a prose-writer with Hooker, Sprat, and Clarendon.

We must now leave this very intelligent commentator, and we leave him with regret. We have not insulted him with indiscriminate praise; and, our having extended our remarks through two articles, is the strongest proof, that we think his work highly valuable, and deserving of the public attention.

*The Poetical Works of David Garrick, Esq. Now first collected into Two Volumes. With explanatory Notes. Small 8vo. 7s. in Boards. Kearsley.*

THIS edition does not promise us any poem of Mr. Garrick's, hitherto unknown: the compiler professes only to collect the fugitive pieces from the diurnal vehicles of temporary humour. He seems to have succeeded in his attempt; for we do not recollect any poetry, hitherto attributed to the English Roscius, which we do not find in this collection. So far the editor demands praise; and, if he had aimed only at the merit of humble diligence, we might have dismissed him with as much applause as such inferior labours could demand. But he wished to appear as a biographer also; and, in this line, he scarcely deserves even the negative merit of being correct. Some circumstances are misrepresented, and many omitted; but the great defect is, that the author has become the analyst rather than the biographer: the events of Garrick's life are coldly related, without a single hint at the motive or effect of any of his actions. His works, and the characters which he represented, are chronologically arranged, without one reflection on either; and the whole is concluded without the slightest attempt to characterise the actor or the man. Such is the dreary poverty of the introductory pages!

The poetry of our author consists either of songs, in the different operas which he wrote; prologues and epilogues, which he seemed spontaneously to have produced, with the

most happy humour; and a few occasional pieces. As poems, they are light and elegant, rather than grand or sublime: they are replete with humour, fancy, and often with wit: the reigning folly is satirised with acuteness and good temper; rather than severity or malignity. We may truly apply to him what was said of Horace,

‘ Omne vas fer vitium ridenti Flaccus amico  
Tangit, & admissus circum præcordia ludit,  
Callidus excessu populum suspendere Naso.’

There are few authors who have more successfully hit the Cynthia of the minute, the fashion, as it flies; there are few whose turns are more happy, whose allusions are more delicate, and whose satire is occasionally more poignant.

The great event, in the life of Mr. Garrick, as an author, was the Jubilee at Stratford; and we mention it chiefly to mark the limits of his genius. The poetry, confessedly his own, in the lighter and more fanciful parts, is admirably adapted to the subject; while, in the others, it is deficient in the weight and dignity necessary for a proper contrast. If it be not too light a comparison, we may say that it was a feast of whipt-syllabubs. Yet there is much genuine poetry in the following stanza.

‘ O from his muse of fire  
Could but one spark be caught,  
Then might these humble strains aspire  
To tell the wonders he has wrought.’

To tell,—how sitting on his magic throne,  
Unaided and alone,  
In dreadful state,

The subject passions round him wait;  
Who tho’ unchain’d, and raging there,  
He checks, inflames, or turns their mad career;

With that superior skill,  
Which winds the fiery steed at will,  
He gives the awful word—

And they all foaming, trembling, own him for their lord.’

We have quoted this stanza, because we think we may, at least with safety to Mr. Garrick’s fame, bring near it, Mr. Gray’s beautiful lines, which, in Dr. J. Warton’s opinion, contain the most poetical compliment ever paid to Shakspeare. If it be supposed a plagiarism, it is surely an allowable one.

‘ This pencil take, she said, whose colours clear  
Richly paint the vernal year;

Thine too these golden keys, immortal boy!  
Which can unlock the gates of joy;

Of horror that, and thrilling fears,  
Or ope the sacred source of sympathetic tears.'

Mr. Garrick's poetry is too well known to render any particular quotation necessary: but we ought not to dismiss these volumes without thanking the editor for preserving the *Monody to Memory*. It is placed, with singular propriety, in the beginning of this collection. The following lines are particularly expressive and beautiful; we cannot conclude our article with any thing more favourable to its subject, and we would not conclude it without the most earnest wish to preserve the '*Memorial*,' and to fulfil the '*trust*.'

'The grace of action, the adapted mein,  
Faithful as nature to the varied scene;  
'Th' expressive glance, whose subtle comment draws  
Entranc'd attention, and a mute applause;  
Gesture that marks, with force and feeling fraught,  
A sense in silence, and a will in thought;  
Harmonious speech, whose pure and liquid tone  
Gives verse a musick, scarce confess'd its own;  
As light from gems assumes a brighter ray,  
And, cloath'd with orient hues, transcends the day!  
Passion's wild break, and frown that awes the sense,  
And ev'ry charm of gentler eloquence,  
All perishable!—like th' electric fire  
But strike the frame, and as they strike, expire;  
Incense too pure a bodied flame to bear,  
Its fragrance charms the sense, and blends with air.

'Where then, while sunk in cold decay he lies,  
And pale eclipse for ever veils those eyes!  
Where is the blest memorial that ensures  
Our Garrick's fame!—whose is the trust? 'tis your's.'

*M. Tullii Ciceronis Opera, cum Indicibus et variis Lectionibus  
Oxonii à Typographo Clarendoniano. 10 Vols. 4to. 5l. 5s.*

**T**HIS work is splendid but not ostentatious, and does credit to the liberality of the Clarendon delegates, by whom the expence was supported, and to the diligence of the editors, by whom the press was corrected. While, however, we commend the execution, we do not approve, indiscriminately and entirely, of the plan.

The text is professedly regulated by that of Oliver's edition. We are not among the admirers of the model which the Oxford editors have condescended to follow, but we readily admit the exactness of the copy.

The

The various readings are annexed to the end of each volume. Those readings are taken from twenty-nine manuscripts, which Thomas Hearne had formerly collated; and from twenty-four manuscripts in the various libraries of Oxford, and from two in the library of York, which have lately been collated by the present editors. The oldest manuscript does not exceed six hundred years, and the most modern is not less than three hundred.

It is, doubtless, an object of considerable importance to the cause of classical literature, that all manuscripts of ancient writers should, in some form or other, be given to the public, as they may tend to confirm different readings already produced from other manuscripts, or to suggest, by the ductus literarum, some happy and decisive conjecture. But critics of a severer class will perhaps be of opinion, that the readings which are preserved in the Oxford manuscripts are not of sufficient importance to justify the complete republication of Tully's works. By men of this description it will be urged, that they might have been printed with greater ease in a separate volume, and might with greater propriety have been accompanied with references to the Paris edition of Olivet.

The want of notes affords another and a more plausible ground of objection to the present edition.

The elegant criticism of Dionysius Halicarnassensis, who compares the copious and diversified language of Demosthenes to the variety of shapes assumed by Proteus, *διάλεκτον ἀπὸ τέλει—ἔστι δὲ διαλλάττουσαν τὸ μεμνημένον παρὰ τοῖς ἀρχαίοις ποιηταῖς Πρωτῶς*. Page 167. Edit. Sylburg.), may, perhaps, with some few distinctions, be applied with equal justice to the works of Cicero. The character of this extraordinary man is indeed equally illustrious, whether we consider him in speculative, or in active life; whether we view him as a student at Rhodes, or a philosopher in his Formian villa; whether we read his pleadings in the forum, or his harangues in the senate. His writings relate to an endless variety of subjects, and are drawn up with a correspondent diversity of manner, which fills us with astonishment at the fertility of his genius, the intenseness of his application, and the multiplicity of his attainments. They embrace whatever is entertaining in private anecdote, and whatever is interesting in the public transactions of his age. They lead us through the spacious fields of philosophy, and the intricate labyrinths of law. They contain many curious particulars of antiquity, both in the structure of the Latin language, and in the constitution of the Roman government. They open to us in beautiful diction, and with masterly arrangement, the most useful rules in the art of rhe-

toric, and the most recondite principles in the science of politics. From their variety therefore, as well as from their excellence, they justify the well-known observation of Quintilian, 'Marcum Tullium non illum habemus Euphranorem circa plurium artium species præstantem, sed in omnibus, quæ in quoque laudantur, eminentissimum.' Quintil. Edit. Roll. pag. 501.

In reading an author, whose compositions are so various, and whose views are so extensive, the aid of commentators will sometimes be necessary to every scholar, however acute his penetration, and however retentive his memory. He will often be perplexed by peculiarities arising from phraseology, or by allusions that are made to national manners, or national events; to the tenets of philosophers, or to the actions of individuals.—He will be mortified on finding that, in the very moment he has occasion for recollecting it, he has forgotten what he once knew. He will be embarrassed in the critical examination of passages, which, in the former course of his reading, he was content to understand superficially. To feel the want of notes under these circumstances, is no mark of ignorance or dulness; but to dissemble that want would betray the most childish vanity, or the most contemptible self-deceit. We do not wish to see any author overwhelmed with the useless quotations of La Cerda, or the tedious remarks of a Burman. But it is possible to unite conciseness with perspicuity, and to separate even copiousness from prolixity. Gesner's edition of Horace will prove the first of these positions; and of the second, we have a decisive instance in the admirable edition of Virgil, for which the learned world is indebted to Heyne.

The practice, however, of publishing classical authors without notes, is not to be considered as an innovation. That practice is not without its advantages. It is well adapted to the use of the scholar for all the purposes of mere occasional consultation, or when he reads an author only for amusement and relaxation. It has been often adopted by other universities as well as Oxford; and in the present instance it deserves at least some share of praise, from the beauty of the print, and the cheapness of the price. If objectors remain yet unsatisfied, it may be urged that where nothing has been promised, it is no just ground of censure that nothing is performed. The public was never encouraged to expect any notes, and consequently has no right to complain of disappointment.

But though we do not presume to hope for, what the scholars of Oxford might certainly furnish with credit to themselves,

selves, and with advantage to the public, a series of original notes; yet we cannot avoid expressing our opinion that the merit of the present edition would be considerably increased, and its sale, we presume, not obstructed, by the addition of an eleventh volume, containing short and select explanations, partly critical, and partly historical.

The prefaces, indexes, &c. of Olivet are totally omitted. Those prefaces, doubtless, would have been improper, as the plan of the Oxford edition is different from that of Olivet; and the place of the indexes is well supplied by the *Clavis Ciceroniana Ernesti*, which occupies the tenth volume. In the ninth volume we find the *Historia Ciceronis per Consules descripta*, the *Index Fabricianus*, and the *Ciceronis Operum recensio Chronologica ex Fabricianâ ejus historiâ*. To the same volume is subjoined *Desiderii Jacotii Vandoperani de Philosophorum doctrinâ Libellus ex Cicerone*. This work issued from the Clarendon press, in the year 1769, and it is now reprinted with greater accuracy.

Upon the whole, the work before us may, *perhaps*, with greater propriety be ranked in the class of ornamental, than of useful publications; but it is *certainly* a new instance, added to the many which the Clarendon delegates have already given, of their liberality in the application of their revenues to the purposes of polite literature.

*A History of the English Law, from the Beginning of the Reign of Edward the Second to the End of the Reign of Henry the Seventh. By John Reeves, Esq. Barrister at Law. Vol. II. 4to. 1l. 1s. in Boards. Brooke.*

WE are happy to find, from the dedication of this second volume, that Mr. Reeves's work has attracted the notice, and received the approbation of an authority so unquestionably high in the law as lord Mansfield. Indeed it appears but just, that the countenance and favour of those who hold distinguished rank in the profession, should be liberally extended toward such, whose time and talents are dedicated to the information of others by their writings, rather than to the enriching of themselves by their practice. For we must think it the peculiar duty of all, whom learning of any kind has rendered eminent, to patronize the diffusion of that knowledge, to which they are themselves indebted for their principal importance in society.

But at the same time that we congratulate Mr. Reeves on this decisive opinion in his behalf, we cannot but feel ourselves flattered in some degree by it, when we recollect

the judgment which we passed on the former volume of this work. We considered it as that which it professes to be, and which it is, namely, A History of the Practice of the Law, calculated to gratify the curiosity of those who study the law professionally. To judge therefore of the merit of this work, a person must know what is the furniture of a lawyer's mind, and what are the topics which are most likely to satisfy his expectations, when he enquires into the history of the English law. One who is well read in the laws of this country would turn, with the same disgust, from the trifling inquiries and essays which delight those who read for amusement, as such superficial inquirers would from the pages of *Bracton* and the *Year-Books*. Mr. Reeves has addressed himself to readers of the former description; if any of the latter have been disappointed, there seems to be no fault in the author.—But to proceed to our business of abstracting the contents of the second volume.

The volume now before us begins with the reign of Edward the Second; and there cannot be a more apposite instance of the justice of the author's observation in the preface, that 'little light is thrown upon our statutes by the civil history of the times in which they were made.' The history of England, while Edward the Second was on the throne, has little to engage our attention; but the law was making great advances. The jurisdiction of the ecclesiastical and civil courts was regulated by a suit of compromise, which endures to this day. Knights fees and their tenures were ascertained, process was regulated, and the abuses of sheriffs and other officers, in many points concerning it, rectified by various acts, and a statute was purposely made to limit and define the prerogative; the kingdom was divided into four circuits, for the more regular administration of justice. These points were the objects of parliamentary attention, and the author has given us a chronological account of the acts, clearly and concisely digested.

The alterations made imperceptibly by the courts of justice in their divisions must, from their nature, be so technical, that no abstract can be made of them, nor perhaps will they excite the curiosity of those among our readers who are not lawyers. The method in which they are treated is good, and the language perspicuous: there is a curious account of the old method of pleading *viva voce* in court; which is given by Mr. Reeves expressly as a specimen of the *Year-Book* in the time of Edward the Second; though, we cannot help remarking, that it has been extracted by certain Reviewers, as a specimen of Mr. Reeves's own style of composition.



The reign of Edward the Third deserves peculiar notice, as the great quantity of materials has compelled the author to change the method which he had hitherto pursued; and the reasons for this innovation we shall give, in his own words.

‘The great length of this reign, and the frequent sitting of parliament, contributed to give birth to more acts of legislation than are to be found in any of the preceding reigns. The statutes being very numerous, and, at the same time, multifarious and short, it may be adviseable, in discoursing upon them, to deviate from the method that has hitherto been observed; and, instead of treating this part of our subject chronologically, it will be, perhaps, more conducive to a thorough understanding of what was done by the legislature towards meliorating our jurisprudence, to digest the statutes, according to the objects of them, into heads, and then speak upon them in that order which the history of the subject may seem to require, so that, notwithstanding the course of time may be disregarded as to the whole, the several parts will be considered as nearly as can be in an historical way. The same method will be followed, for the same reason, in all the subsequent reigns.’

The great variety and importance of the objects which during this long reign attracted the attention of the legislature, and the numberless changes and improvements which crept silently into the practice of the courts, will, we hope, be a sufficient excuse to our readers for our not following Mr. Reeves minutely over so wide a field. We cannot however but recommend to the particular attention of our readers the history of the judicial authority of parliament and the council; a subject which our author here takes occasion to discuss in its rise and progress, from the time of Edward the First to the period of which he is more immediately writing; in the reign of Edward the Third, when the extent of that authority was more accurately defined and more narrowly circumscribed. For the high court of parliament, which had hitherto taken cognizance, in the first instance, of all suits both civil and criminal, became now only the final resort in all such important cases of a civil nature, as the inferior courts were inadequate to decide. But in criminal matters parliament still continued to exercise its primary jurisdiction, as often as it thought necessary to interfere, from a supposition that the rank or other external circumstances of the offender might probably screen him from punishment in the courts below. And from this origin private bills of attainder in modern times seem evidently to be derived.

The author's encomium on the statute of treasons may perhaps startle a modern reader; but, as Mr. Reeves has observ-

ed, in his former volume, to have a right conception of ancient jurisprudence, it is necessary to forget for a while every alteration which has been since made in it. It appears strange to us, at this day, that all inferior crimes should be defined and ascertained with the most anxious care, and no construction of the statutes relating to them admitted, which tends in the least to extend the effect of their operation; while the whole fabric of the law of treason is framed out of strained constructions, and founded upon a few general words of an obsolete statute. What was the case at the time this statute was made? No accurate distinction had then been taken between crimes of a higher and lower nature; and the doctrine of forfeitures, which were then a great branch of the revenue, had caused every offence to be esteemed treason, which by the most strained subtlety could be called an encroachment on, or invasion of the royal prerogative. Under these circumstances the law in question must be considered as highly remedial, however imperfect it may now seem. Indeed the makers of it were sensible of their deficiency. Because (says the act) many other like cases of treason may happen in time to come, which cannot be imagined or declared at the present time, it was accorded that in such cases the judges should receive the direction of the king and parliament; and it cannot but be thought a deficiency in our code of criminal laws, that in the course of upwards of four hundred years, the parliament has not thought proper to give such directions.

The courts in Westminster-hall were principally employed in regulating and improving the forms of real actions, which are now nearly disused. The increasing trade and population of the country made it necessary to extend and enlarge the remedies concerning personal property; and accordingly we find, in this reign, some instances of actions on the case, which fill up so great a space in the law of this day.

In the following chapters Mr. Reeves has deserted his original plan, and compressed three or four reigns into the compass of a chapter. He has given reasons in the preface, and hints at them in the introduction to the twelfth chapter, which comprizes the legal history of Richard II. Henry IV. and V. But we are sorry to say that, to us at least, they are hardly satisfactory; and we cannot but lament that Mr. Reeves's courage should fail him, in executing a plan which he had great merit in conceiving; but it is our business to inform our readers what books are, not what they might have been.

These three reigns are the properest point at which such alteration could have taken place; and probably, if ever Mr.

Reeves

Reeves feels himself inclined to pursue his original designs, little addition will be required in this chapter.

Richard the Second shewed a vigour in his proceedings against ecclesiastical encroachments, which does honour to his spirit. The clergy protested against measures which they could not hinder, and the legislature prevailed at last so far as to oblige the superior clergy to make some provision for their inferiors, who did all their duty. Usury was discouraged, as tending to defraud creditors, and swell the revenues of the church. The council and parliament preserved their judicial authority; and the equitable jurisdiction of the Chancery began to shew itself. The famous opinions of Richard the Second's judges are too well known to require our taking any notice of them.

Henry the Fourth did little towards the administration of justice; it will be no recommendation to his character, in these days, that he was so zealous for the burning of heretics as to permit the clergy to carry through a statute, which threw that Christian employment wholly into their hands, without the assistance of the common law writ de Hæretico comburendo. This, and some temporary statutes against rioters, are the principal efforts of the legislature in this unquiet reign.

A famous statute was made in the first year of Henry the Fifth's reign, ascertaining the qualifications of those who were elected members of parliament, as well as that of their electors, which Mr. Reeves passes over cursorily. We shall give his reason, without any comment, and leave it to the reader to judge whether it be satisfactory or not.

These statutes, and others relating to the election of the commons, are only mentioned incidentally, they not properly making a part of our subject. It has been studiously endeavoured all through the history, to avoid the discussion of constitutional questions, and to confine our deduction wholly to the changes that have happened in that part of our law by which private property and the private rights of individuals are governed, and that by which public injuries are punished.

The Lollards were rigorously persecuted, and their enemies, the established clergy, let loose upon them with all the weapons they could wish. The greatest part of the statutes of this reign are directed to the expediting the return, and enforcing the execution of legal process. An act was passed to regulate the poor, and some farther provisions made relating to riots, and the authority of justices of the peace enlarged. Robbery of persons having the king's safe-conduct was made treason.

[To be continued.]

*Letters from Portugal, Spain, Italy, and Germany, in the Years 1759, 1760, and 1761. By Christopher Hervey, Esq. 3 Vols. 18s. in Boards. Faulder.*

SINCE the time when these Letters were written, the countries, which are the object of Mr. Hervey's correspondence have been visited by several other travellers, who have so often communicated their observations to the public, that narratives of this kind now cease to afford entertainment. Mr. Hervey, we must acknowledge, differs in a few particulars from other travellers; for his Letters abound more with a recital of what he has read or heard, than either with the description of places, or an account of the manners and customs in the countries through which he passed. In having recourse to such information, it is possible that he may have accommodated himself to the taste of his correspondent at the time; but we believe that few readers will now reap much satisfaction from a narrative of the conspiracy against the life of the king of Portugal, the execution of the conspirators, or extracts from the Spanish gazettes relative to some naval actions. Yet these, and such as these, are in general the subjects treated in the Letters before us. The author likewise has filled many pages successively with quotations from books, which cannot have any great title to be considered as interesting. Indeed we should not be very sanguine in expectation of entertainment after perusing the first Letter in the collection. It is as follows.

' Dear Sir,

' You are to consider this as my first and introductory letter to the strict correspondence you have desired. The writing so much is no trouble; for as I shall do it without considering what I write, I do it likewise without difficulty.

' You know already that the papers I am to send you are to be upon any subject, as it is the liberty you allow in writing, that makes them no trouble. You are to consider these productions as a strange mixture of incoherences; among which, however, you may chance to find some little matter that suits your taste. All I engage for, is to daub a sheet of paper over with a black fluid called ink; reducing it into certain hieroglyphical characters called letters; which letters shall be put together into little packets called words; and this is all I promise: reserving to myself the full and absolute power of writing in what language or style I please; intelligible or not; good, bad, or indifferent. In consequence of this agreement, you may expect to hear from me next week, and so on, if I am well, till my return to England.'

Through

Through the whole of the Letters Mr. Hervé appears to have adhered strictly to the declaration with which he set out. His intention therefore may be admitted as some apology for the deficiency of the entertainment. But we cannot so easily approve of the resolution, by-whomsoever it has been formed, of committing those Letters to the press. Not that we think they do any discredit to the author, considered merely in point of composition, but that they are not likely to answer any end of publication.

The subsequent Letter may serve as a specimen of the author's style, which, we have the pleasure to observe, is far from being disagreeable; though we wish he had avoided 'uncleanly dirty,' an expression used in one of the Letters.

'I am now at the first little town in the Spanish dominions; and a poor little place it is; but to bring you here in due order I must continue my narration.

'The sun had no sooner risen upon Silveres than I was separated from my new companions, and pursued my route towards Beja. They struck off to the left for Badajoz. We had still, however, another chaise in company, in which was a Portuguese gentleman, who was carrying his daughter to take the veil at Viana; but they were so very reserved, it was impossible to have much communication with them. Indeed, one of the characteristics of the Portuguese seems to be an aversion, or I may say hatred, to foreigners. We dined at a little village called St. Jago, from whence we were conducted through a very ugly country to Viana, the place where I lay that night. Though the country from Lisbon to Viana had resembled what I wrote to you of near Aldeagalega, yet just by that town it was prettily interspersed with groves of olive trees, situated upon little rising hills. Our inn and accommodations we still thought very bad, but nothing to be compared with what I have since experienced in Spain. Here you find nothing in the inns, if, indeed there are any, but a very dirty room, and what you eat or drink must be brought with you, or you are obliged to run about the place and buy it yourself. The intended nun and her father left us at Viana, nor will I detain you longer in a town where there is nothing to divert you; and was hardly any thing for me to eat.

'The reason of so great a want of provisions, was our having been overturned just in entering Viana, which had blended no small quantity of sandy dirt with our stock. Some priests, however, according to the hospitality of the country, gave us part of their provisions, which with what I got at the inn, made up a poor supper. The next day we dined at Cuba, a little village not above twelve miles from Beja. Every thing was very good here, as they had been previously informed of my coming by my Beja friends. A comfortable nap after dinner, according to the fashion of southern countries, being finished, we set out, and arrived at Beja above an hour before sun-set.

It

It is situated upon a hill, which continues gently rising for a great many miles every way round it. This gives a very extensive prospect from every part over a fruitful corn country, the only one of that kind of any extent, I believe, in the kingdom; and which is almost as destitute of trees as our downs, except, indeed, a few olive groves on that side towards Seville. I met with many civilities from the inhabitants of this town, or city, for so you must call it to please them. The first day I passed there my landlord's mother would not appear at table, on account of the tyrannical custom in Portugal, which renders it indecent for a lady to be visible when there are strangers in the house. However, by strong intercession, she came down the day after, without any of those charms which might make her appearance of consequence.

As an exact journal of what I did at Beja must be tiresome, I will only tell you that I had there an opportunity of seeing much more of the Portuguese than all the time I remained in Lisbon. One evening I spent very agreeably at a gentleman's country-house about three or four miles from the place, and just in that part where the olive trees are situated. An alcove placed under some orange trees, and by the side of a little pond, gave us an opportunity of enjoying the fresh breezes that blew and tempered the heat of the sun, which we have already experienced much greater than at any time in England. A profusion of sweetmeats and other good things were set before us, to which we added oranges and sweet lemons, that we gathered ourselves from the impending branches. As we were walking afterwards round the garden, a large serpent thwarted our way. I believe he was a yard and a half in length. I had never seen one so big, and, indeed, he was a very fine sight. When he found we intended to kill him, he put himself in a posture of defence. He drew his tail and hindermost parts in a circle under him, and raising his head and chest a foot above the ground, darted out his tongue, and seemed to spit venom at us. But stones soon dispatched him, and extended him at his length upon the ground.

As it was the holy week, some part of the little time I was at Beja was occupied in seeing Roman catholic functions and ceremonies. They are much more superstitious in those things here than in Italy, and add cruelty to superstition, in permitting the penitents to flog, and torment themselves in other ways, about the streets. The farther you get from Rome, the more such kind of penances are intermixed with religion; and learning seems to banish them entirely from her empire.

As to the Portuguese, they are still fifty years behind other nations. The great cloak thrown over the left shoulder hides every thing. And yet these very people, who owe the comforts of life to foreigners, as their European and Indian dominions produce little more than wine, oil, oranges, and gold, begrudge the money paid to other nations for their corn, cloaths, and other more necessary commodities.

Mr.

Mr. Hervey remarks, that the good effects of industry and commerce cannot be more strongly proved than by considering the great quantity of gold and silver which the Spaniards have in the West Indies; and yet at home, it is not unusual for them to want even common conveniences. He adds, like a shrewd politician, that England ought by no means attempt to open their eyes: for their blindness is of too much service to her not to wish them to continue in it. Should any Spaniard now in this country, transmit the observation to the court of Madrid, as Mr. Hervey has, in other cases, set an example, how repugnant to our author's sagacity, and how injurious to England, might the publication of these Letters prove!

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*The History of France, under the Kings of the Race of Valois, From the Accession of Charles the Fifth, in 1364, to the Death of Charles the Ninth, in 1574. The Second Edition, with very considerable Augmentations. By Nathaniel William Wraxall, Esq. 2 Vols. 10s. 6d. in Boards. Dilly.*

WE formerly gave an account of this work, under the title of 'Memoirs of the Kings of France of the House of Valois\*'; but it is now so much improved, in a variety of circumstances, that the author has thought proper to give it a new denomination. The dates of every memorable transaction, as well as the regular series of years, which had before been omitted, are at present introduced. Considerable additions are likewise made to the text. But what chiefly merits attention, the work is now greatly enriched with historical notes, particularly under the four last reigns. Of these we shall extract a few specimens.

In the reign of Charles VII. we meet with the following note, relative to Agnes Soreille.

'The year of her birth was about 1409. Her extraction was noble, her father being seigneur de St. Geran, & Coudun. She had attained her twenty-second year when she first appeared at court, in the service of Isabella, wife to René of Anjou, and queen of Naples and Sicily. From that princess she passed into the train of Mary, wife of Charles the Seventh. Her influence was during some time closely concealed, and only divulged by the promotion of all her relations to offices and dignities. "Accessit ad stupri suspicionem propinquorum Agnetis ad dignitates ecclesiasticas repentina promotio," says Gaguin, in his Life of Charles the Seventh.

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\* Critical Review, vol. xlii. p. 452.

\* Her mind was elevated and noble. She ever attempted to inspire the king with a thirst of glory, and a wish to recover his dominions from the English. More than one historian of that century relate an anecdote of her, which places her grandeur of mind in the highest point of view. It is said, that Charles having in her presence consulted an astrologer respecting his own fortunes and success against the English, Agnes, in her turn, demanded of him her future destiny.—The astrologer replied with the dexterity of a courtier, that “she was fated to be long beloved by a great monarch.”—Suffer me then, sire, said Agnes, addressing herself to the king, to retire from your court, and pass to that of the king of England, to fulfil my destiny! he, unquestionably, is the object of the prediction, since you are on the point of losing your crown, which Henry is about to unite to his own.—Charles, it is said, was not insensible to the delicacy and severity of the reproof.—The time when this anecdote is placed, is in 1432, at the æra when Henry the Sixth had been solemnly crowned at Paris, king of England and France.

† Francis the First honoured and cherished her memory. The four elegant lines which that great prince made on her, are well known.

“Gentille Agnes? plus d’honneur tu merite,  
La cause étant de France recouvrer,  
Que ce que peut dans un cloître ouvrir  
Claude Nonain, ou bien devote hermite.”

The next is taken from the history of Louis the Eleventh.

\* The use of iron cages, introduced and rendered familiar under Louis the Eleventh, in which he used to detain prisoners of state who were chained with enormous fetters, impresses with horror. The count du Perche, a nobleman of the highest rank, son to the duke of Alençon, and a prince of the blood, was confined in one of these engines for three months, though not guilty of the crime imputed to him, and only received his allowance of food through the grate. The cardinal de la Balue remained many years in a cage in the castle of Loches. It was customary with Louis to place himself behind a screen, while criminals were examined and put to the torture. Gibbets were usually erected round the castles where he resided, and these marks of cruelty distinguished his abode.

Under the reign of Francis I. the author delivers, in a note, the following particulars concerning the countess of Chateau Briant.

\* We know very little with certainty relative to this lady, or the manner of her first becoming connected with the king.

Her



Her name was François de Foix. She was born about the year 1495, and was married to the seigneur de la Laval in Bretagne, when scarce twelve years of age. She was possessed of the greatest personal beauty, united to all the accomplishments of the age in which she flourished. The exact æra of her first appearance at the court of France is not ascertained. She became, however, early in the present reign, the declared favourite of the king; and from her ascendancy over him, more than from the personal merit or talents of her three brothers, they were advanced to the highest military commands, in Navarre, in the Milanese, and in the kingdom of Naples. Her influence appears to have lasted till the king's campaign into Italy, which was followed by the battle of Pavia. Mademoiselle de Heilly, better known by the title of duchess d'Estampes, succeeded to her place on Francis's return from his prison at Madrid. Her death has been the subject of much inquiry and romance. It is pretended without reason, that her veins were opened by her husband's command, about six months after the battle of Pavia, at the castle of Chateau Briant in Bretagne. This is however totally disproved by the inscription on her tomb in the church of the Mathurins of that place, by which it appears that she died on the 16th of October, 1537. She had no children by the king.

In respect of the several circumstances which we have mentioned, the present edition of the work is so much improved, that it now fully merits the appellation of a regular and legitimate history. Nor can we, without reaping much pleasure, perceive the great and laudable attention which Mr. Wraxall has bestowed towards rendering it so worthy of the public favour.

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*The Arenarius of Archimedes, translated from the Greek, with Notes and Illustrations. To which is added, the Dissertation of Christopher Clavius, on the same Subject, from the Latin. By G. Anderfon, Wadham College, Oxford. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Johnson.*

THE writings of Archimedes have ever been received with universal approbation; no mathematician of antiquity stands in higher repute for his extensive knowledge of the science, or is more celebrated for his inventions and discoveries. To the generality of modern proficients in mathematics, however, his works are only known by report, or the testimonies of other writers: the language in which they are written requiring more time and application than the extensiveness of this branch of knowledge commonly affords to its students.

A trans-

A translation therefore of the whole works of Archimedes has been long a desideratum to mathematicians; and we should have been happy to have announced to the public an exact translation of all his writings, executed in the same masterly manner as the performance before us.

The *Arenarius* (*Υαμμῖτης*), is a small and distinct part of this author's works. His design was to demonstrate the possibility of enumerating the particles of sand which would compose a mass equal in bulk to the whole solar system, or any other determinate magnitude whatever.

Barren as such a subject may appear, the author, by inventing a different species of numbers, and a new method of calculation, rendered it an improvement of considerable importance in the ancient method of enumeration. And the geometrical problems and opinions of the ancient philosophers concerning the magnitude of the earth, solar system, &c. which are occasionally interspersed, contain much curious information. The translator, in a well-written preface, has given some account of the knowledge of the ancients in arithmetic, algebra, geometry, and of the Pythagorean or Aristarchian system of the world; from which we shall present our readers with a few extracts, that they may form some judgment of the style and manner in which the present translation is executed; referring them for farther particulars to the work itself.

'Arithmetic is a science so singularly useful in every branch of knowledge, and so immediately necessary to the common affairs of life, that it must doubtless have derived its origin from the earliest ages of the world. To seek for its inventors therefore in the annals of antiquity, would be a fruitless and unprofitable enquiry. Like other arts and sciences, from a small and inconsiderable beginning, it advanced towards perfection by slow and almost imperceptible gradations; whilst, in the succession of improvements, the original inventors were forgotten.'

After mentioning the Phœnicians as the most ancient arithmeticians on record, from whom the Greeks are supposed to have derived their first knowledge of science, this writer proceeds to consider the state of arithmetic before the time of Archimedes, the improvements made by him, and the extensive powers of numeration which this work was principally intended to shew. From which he concludes, that the arithmetic of the Greeks was advanced to as great a degree of perfection as their ignorance of the cypher, and its various uses, would admit.

One of the most useful theorems in the *Arenarius* being demonstrated by an algebraical process, gives occasion to Mr.

An-

Anderson to speak of the great antiquity of that science, and of its being well known, and in use amongst the most early mathematicians; although their extreme veneration for geometry prevented their leaving to posterity any solutions of problems, by a method which they deemed inferior in point of elegance, and less removed from the conceptions of the vulgar.

The geometrical method of demonstration being more elegant and perspicuous than any other, was held in the highest esteem by the ancients: they regarded it as the most excellent of sciences, without which no one could be perfectly master of any kind of learning whatever. Equal to their ideas of its importance, was their assiduity in cultivating and improving it; and as in all other branches of science in which they particularly exercised their genius, so also in geometry, their works have ever been esteemed the standard of taste and elegance.

To this great esteem for geometry is attributed their neglecting mechanical experiments in philosophy, and their consequent ignorance of the true laws of nature, which obliged them to have recourse to hypothesis, by which they could account for the different phenomena and constitution of things.

‘Mechanical experiments being neglected and despised, no other method of accounting for the various operations of nature remained, but that of framing hypothesis; which depending only upon reasoning drawn from probability, were defended by the followers of one sect, and rejected and refuted by those of another. Amongst the variety of hypothesis which were framed on different parts of philosophy, chance or reason directed some to the right system of things. Of these was Aristarchus the Samian, who, rejecting the vulgarly received opinion of the motion of the heavenly bodies, proposed the true system of the world.’

Mr. Anderson next proceeds to consider the reasons for calling this the Pythagorean system, and, with the partiality of a translator, seems desirous to prove that Aristarchus was the real inventor. The authorities, however, which he adduces, are not of sufficient antiquity to determine this contested point: since Archimedes is confessedly the most ancient writer who has mentioned this philosopher; and Aristotle, who flourished more than half a century before, says that this system was taught in Italy by the Pythagoreans.

‘The philosophers of Italy, says he, called Pythagoreans, maintain an opinion contrary to the general one. For they assert that the sun (*which they call fire*) is placed in the centre; and that the earth, being in fact one of the planets, moves in a circle round this centre.’ Chap. xiii. lib. 2. De cælo.

This is a sufficient proof that the Pythagoreans had, at that early time, embraced this opinion; but as this was near two centuries after the time of Pythagoras, and as Plato, the master of Aristotle, makes Timeus, who was a Pythagorean, place the earth in the centre of the universe, there seems sufficient reason for supposing that this system was not taught by Pythagoras, nor his immediate successors. The time of the invention, therefore, and the real inventor, seem entirely lost in obscurity. Numa's Temple of Vesta, where a continual central fire was kept up, which, as sir Isaac Newton observes (*De Mundi Systemate*), favours much of the Egyptian mysteries, certainly affords an argument for the high antiquity of this discovery.

Though the era of this invention is unknown; and though the time in which Aristarchus flourished is indeterminable; yet, as Archimedes is the oldest writer who has mentioned Aristarchus, we cannot but be inclined to concur in the general opinion, that the true system of the world must have been known in Italy long before his time. Indeed it appears to us extremely probable that he was a very eminent defender of this system, about the time of Archimedes, as Vossius places him; and this probably was the reason of that celebrated mathematician making him (as Libertus Fromondus expresses it) the chief of that opinion (*Hujus paradoxi principem fecit Archimedes.*)

The remainder of the preface contains an account of the different editions made use of by the translator, and their several merits; one of which is not a little extraordinary, as it differs considerably from all the other Greek editions; and though complete, has neither date, editor's name, nor place of printing.—We have made some enquiries concerning this work, but have been equally unsuccessful with Mr. Anderson.

The translation appears free and correct, as far as we have had any opportunity of judging; the translator having in general followed Dr. Wallis's edition. A considerable number of notes are added, at the end of the work, which contain some criticisms on the Greek text, and on the solution of the problems, tending to elucidate the more obscure parts of this performance. But as we have already dwelt longer than usual upon this article, our limits will not permit us to enter into a discussion of their merits. We shall therefore present our readers with Archimedes' account of the system of Aristarchus, and conclude, with wishing that this little performance may meet with such encouragement from the public as will induce the

the translator to undertake the whole of this author's writings.

\* According to the hypothesis of Aristarchus, neither the fixed stars, nor the sun, are subject to any motion; but the earth annually revolves round the sun, in the circumference of a circle, in the centre of which the sun remains fixed; and the sphere of the fixed stars, whose centre he supposes to coincide with the sun's, is of such immense magnitude, that the circle, in whose periphery the earth is supposed to revolve round the sun, bears no greater proportion to the distance of the fixed stars, than the centre of a sphere does to its superficies.

To this is added, a translation of a dissertation by Christopher Clavius, on the same subject; which, being expressed by cyphers, tends in some degree to illustrate Archimedes' doctrine.—Before we leave this subject we cannot help remarking to what an extent Archimedes has carried the powers of numeration, having invented terms to express numbers which would require 80,000,000,000,000,000 cyphers, with an unit annexed to denote them.—If the extent of calculation be, as some have asserted, a criterion to judge of the improvement of a country in the fine arts, Greece must, at that time, have arrived at the highest summit of knowledge.

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*A Treatise on the Art of Music; in which the Elements of Harmony and Air are practically considered, and illustrated by an Hundred and Fifty Examples in Notes; many of them taken from the best Authors. The whole being intended as a Course of Lectures, preparatory to the Practice of Thorough-Bass, and Musical Composition. By Mr. Jones. Fol. 1l. 1s. Longman and Broderip.*

MUSIC is a science which had been treated either obscurely or superficially by many authors; some parts of it had scarcely been considered at all, though necessary to be known by all composers who wish to rise above the servility of imitation, and would work upon such principles as can alone give value to originality of sentiment in musical composition. A way was therefore open for a musical author to methodize the art, and lay down its laws more clearly, for the benefit of musical students. This is the design of Mr. Jones's work, as he has explained it in his Introduction; where he tells us, his work, 'short and imperfect as it is, contains much of that information which, as a student in music, he often wished to find, but never could.' Yet it does not interfere with the profession of masters who teach the performance of music; being rather intended to improve those in science and judgment

who are already proficient: and the author wishes every reader of his work to be able to touch all the examples, as they occur, upon some keyed instrument.

In the order of his work Mr. Jones begins, where the art itself must, with laying down the octave as a system of degrees; and he delivers the old scheme of sol-fa-ing, to shew the disposition of tones and semi-tones in the major and minor keys.

A rule is here given, which simplifies the practice of hitting the intervals with the voice; and the author recommends it to practitioners to learn singing by the sol-fa rather than by an instrument; because this keeps them ignorant of the true principle of singing by notes, and renders their improvement much more slow and uncertain. It is a practice too common in some cathedrals to learn boys to follow the organ by ear rather than to take the intervals by rule; in consequence of which they still remain ignorant beginners at every new piece of music. Whoever tries the sol-fa properly, will soon be sensible of its wonderful effect in producing rapid improvement.

In a second chapter Mr. Jones treats of concords or consonant intervals, and shews particularly how many different relations one single note is capable of, when referred to other notes above and below it.

In his third chapter he treats of the octave as a system of harmony; shews how the whole natural harmony of the octave is comprehended in the chord of the key itself, the chord of its fifth, and the chord of its fourth: whence the *key* and its *fifth* and its *fourth* are the three fundamental notes of the octave. This leads to the harmonic accompaniments of the degrees in an octave; all of which is illustrated by examples in notes, for which we must refer to the work itself.

The fourth chapter treats of the inversion of concords, for the purpose of producing variety without departing from the key; and here a new and curious doctrine of what the author calls *internal consonance*, is advanced; and it is shewn how the same chord, when inverted, changes from minor into major, and assumes a form more agreeable to the ear; which may lead to many improvements.

The fifth chapter delivers the doctrine of discords, and shews how they become allowable by means of a consonant relation to some concord; which rule also shews why some discords have a natural preference to others. The generation of discords out of one another, and their respective resolutions, are shewn at large, and illustrated by examples; and a rule, more extensive and universal than that of Rameau, is laid down

down for finding fundamental basses. But that which carries the scholar more deep into the mysteries of music, is the doctrine of *modulation*, in the sixth chapter, which comprehends the rules for passing from one key to another. To keep this art of modulation within its true bounds, the author derives it from its true principle; by the application of which, it is confined to those keys only which have a natural relation to the original key, as *primaries* or *secondaries*.

The seventh chapter lays down several periods of harmony, some of which arise from the foregoing rules, and some are borrowed from the greatest composers. The use of these is to form a sort of common-place, out of which the voluntary player or composer may enlarge his stock of matter and improve his judgment. Here it is also shewn how a fugue or canon may be constructed, by comparing with one another a series of concords in an harmonic period: of this the author gives an example, from one of the periods in his work. A piece for the organ is formed on the harmonic accompaniment of that period, which consists of the eight degrees of the fifth of the key; this is subjoined in the thirty-eighth plate of the musical examples. Some remarks are added on the excellence of a responsive correspondence in the several parts of a composition, and the endless variety which the composer may invent in this species of music. The several kinds of cadences, perfect, imperfect, and *ad libitum*, are described: and, in plate nineteen, example eighty-six, a piece of music is given, in which fourteen different cadences are introduced; which piece might be performed as a voluntary upon the organ with good effect.

To this chapter is added a theory of the chromatic system, where the chromatic octave, or octave of half notes, is deduced from its proper original, and the limitations of chromatic melody are ascertained by examples from the greatest masters. The harmonic accompaniments of chromatic basses ascending and descending, are shewn in several periods of harmony; and some observations are added on the use of chromatic harmony in vocal music, which are illustrated by examples from Purcell and Pergolesi. In the foregoing periods (says the author) I have endeavoured to exhibit the most considerable parts of what may be called the *materia musica*, which experience and fancy are to compound and apply in different ways. I might have multiplied these examples; but when the learner has studied what is here given, he will be able to do this and much more for himself. Out of these periods he will construct others, by compounding them together, at pleasure, when use has made it easy to apply the

rules of *inversion* and *modulation*. And when the fancy is furnished with some variety of air and measure, the scholar becomes an *extempore* performer, who will find his stores inexhaustible, if he has laid in a proper foundation of harmony.'

The eighth chapter treats of the *analysis* of musical air, and the *conduct* of subject. The author proceeds upon an analogy betwixt poetry, rhetoric, and music, and infers the necessity of measure in musical air, and a division of it into clauses and sentences; without which, music has no more sense in it than poetry or oratory would have under the like disadvantages. He shews how air is measured, by decomposing some of the pieces of our best masters: and here he takes occasion to censure the want of meaning and method, with that barren tautology, which are too frequently found in the prevailing style of music. 'Some masters have ventured to predict, that this style will soon be out of fashion, but that (says the author, page 43), is more than I can foresee; light people will always be pleased with light music, and little minds will give the preference to little things.' In treating of air, he endeavours to prove, by examples, that the effect of melody upon the ear is very much heightened by an harmonic consecution in the notes of the melody. Of this we shall not undertake to decide, but leave it, as a nice point, to the experience of the musical reader.

For the management of a musical subject, and its improvement, several rules are laid down and confirmed by examples. The first rule for this purpose is to diversify the subject by breaking it into parts, and taking them up alternately. A second is, to apply the measure of the subject to a different order of tones and semi-tones; taking care that, if chromatic melody is introduced for variety, the chromatic semi-tones should, at proper places, fall into the diatonic degrees, and belong to some *certain key*. A third rule for improving a subject without departing from it, is to augment or diminish the *time* or value of its notes, of which some remarkable examples are given. A fourth is to run divisions upon its harmony; and of this a large example is given.

This chapter is concluded with some observations on *expression* and *contrast*; both of which, as the author observes, are of great importance to composers and performers.

In a ninth chapter, all the foregoing rules are summed up: and when the musical student has been directed how to apply them for his improvement, Mr. Jones concludes his work in the following words: 'If the best authors are studied and examined by these rules, I am persuaded there will be more true taste and judgment amongst the lovers of music, better voluntaries in



in the church, more respect to the sacred style, and less encouragement to trifling and effeminate compositions. It is in this, as in every art, its beauties cannot be properly admired, till its rules and difficulties are understood."

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*An Essay on Punctuation.* 12mo. 3s. Walter.

THE art of punctuation, though of the greatest importance in writing, in printing, and in directing the voice of the reader, has hitherto been much neglected, or considered as an arbitrary invention, depending on fancy and caprice. But the writer of the present Essay has clearly shewn, that this is a mistake; and that a right punctuation is founded on rational and determinate principles.

The first chapter is a dissertation on the origin of the points, and their gradual reception into the writings of the ancient Greeks and Romans. The learned reader will not be displeased with the following historical disquisition. We shall omit the author's references and authorities, which are copious and accurately quoted.

\* The ancient way of writing among the Greeks and Romans was in capitals, placed at equal distances, without any blank spaces to separate the words, or any marks to divide or subdivide the sentences. The celebrated Chronicle of the Arundel Marbles, the Alexandrian manuscript in the British Museum, the manuscript, containing the four Gospels and the Acts of the Apostles in Greek and Latin, presented to the University of Cambridge by Beza, in 1581, the small fragment of Livy, discovered by Mr. Bruns in the Vatican at Rome, in 1772, and a great variety of other Greek and Latin manuscripts of the most ancient date, are written in capitals, without any distances between the words, without any accents, and, for the most part, without points.

\* In some inscriptions and manuscripts, all the words are separated by dots or periods. In others, only complete sentences or paragraphs are distinguished by points, or blank spaces.

\* The origin of the points is not easily traced in the depths of antiquity. Suidas tells us, that the period and the colon were discovered and explained by Thrasyllus, about 380 years before the Christian æra. But it is most probable, that by periods and colons, Suidas only means, the composition of such sentences, and members of sentences, as Demetrius Phalereus, Dionysius of Halicarnassus, Cicero, Quintilian, and other ancient writers, have distinguished by these terms. In favour of this opinion, it may be observed, that Thrasyllus is said to have been the first, who studied oratorical numbers, which entirely consisted in the artificial structure of periods and colons.

‘ From a passage in Aristotle, in which he says, “ It is difficult *δυσχερὲς* [to point] the writings of Heraclitus, on account of their obscurity,” it seems very evident, that punctuation was known in the time of that philosopher.

‘ Nevertheless, Salmasius, Huetius, Montfaucon, and other learned writers, assert, that the points are of later date; and ascribe the invention to Aristophanes, a grammarian of Byzantium, about a hundred and twenty years after the death of Aristotle.

‘ Though I do not find any authority for this assertion, there is no doubt, but that a mark of some sort, which was called *σημεῖον*, was used by Aristophanes, and other grammarians of that age.

‘ In the time of Adrian, that is, about the year 127, Nicenor, a grammarian of Alexandria, wrote six books on punctuation in general; and other tracts on the use of the point in Homer and Callimachus.

‘ Twenty or thirty years afterwards, Apollonius Alexandrinus composed a treatise on grammar, in which he speaks of punctuation, as a circumstance well known in Greek manuscripts, at least in the schools of the grammarians.

‘ In a Greek epigram, cited by Leo Allatius, we are informed, that one Cometas revised and pointed the poems of Homer. But, as it is difficult to ascertain the time when Cometas lived, we can draw no conclusion from this testimony.

‘ The first system of punctuation consisted in the different position of one single point. At the bottom of the letter, it was equivalent to a comma; in the middle, it was equal to a colon; and at the top, it denoted a period, or the conclusion of the sentence.

‘ This scheme was easily practised in Greek manuscripts, while they were written in capitals. But when the small letters were adopted, that is, about the ninth century, this distinction could not be observed: a change was therefore made in the mode of punctuation.

‘ The ancient Romans, as well as the Greeks, made use of points. Cicero mentions them under the appellation of *librarium notæ*, “ the marks of transcribers;” and, in several parts of his works, he speaks of “ *interpunctæ clausulæ in orationibus*,” of “ *clausulæ atque interpuncta verborum*,” of “ *distincta et interpuncta intervalla*,” of “ *interpunctiones verborum*, &c.”

‘ Seneca expressly asserts, that Latin writers, in his time, had been used to punctuation: “ *Nos, cum scribimus, interpungere consuevimus.*”

‘ These words cannot allude to the insertion of a point after each word, as Muretus and Lipsius imagined; but must necessarily refer to marks of punctuation in the division of sentences. For in the passage, in which this observation occurs, Seneca is  
speak.

speaking of one Q. Haterius, who made no pauses in his oratorical harangues:

‘ Suetonius informs us, “ that Valerius Probus procured copies of many old books; and employed himself in correcting, pointing, and illustrating them; devoting his time to this, and no other part of grammar.” From which we may conclude, that, in the time of Probus, or about the year 68, Latin manuscripts had not been usually pointed; and that grammarians made it their business to supply this deficiency.

‘ Quintilian, who wrote his celebrated treatise on oratory about the year 88, speaks of commas, colons, and periods; but it must be observed, that by these terms he means clauses, members, and complete sentences, and not the marks of punctuation.

‘ In the fourth century, Ælius Donatus published a treatise on grammar, in which he explains the *distinctio*, the *media distinctio*, and the *subdistinctio*: that is, the use of a single point, in the various positions already mentioned.

‘ Jerom, who had been the pupil of Donatus, in his Latin version of the scriptures, made use of certain distinctions or divisions, which he calls *cola* and *commata*. It seems however very probable, that these divisions were not made by the addition of any points or stops; but were formed by writing, in one line, as many words as constituted a clause, equivalent to what we distinguish by a comma or a colon. These divisions were called *σύνολοι* or *ἐνμυατα*; and had the appearance of short, irregular verses in poetry. There are some Greek manuscripts still extant, which are written in this manner.

‘ Diomedes, a Latin grammarian, who is supposed to have lived about the year 410, treats at large of the three distinctions mentioned by Donatus. But neither these writers, nor any of the thirty-three grammarians, published by Putschius, give the least intimation of the other points now in use.

‘ We find then, that the ancient Greeks and Romans had points, or marks of distinction, in their writings. But the transcribers usually neglected them; and only grammarians, or very accurate persons, had them inserted in their copies.

‘ About the eighth, ninth, and tenth centuries, writers began to leave a space between the words, and to make use of commas, colons, and periods; but not with any degree of regularity. Even after the invention of printing, the editors placed the points in an arbitrary manner, probably without bestowing on them the necessary attention. Robert Stephens, in particular, varied his points in every edition of the Greek Testament. The books printed in those days, and the small tract, which Aldus Manutius has left us on punctuation, will serve to convince us, that this art was in a very imperfect state, in the sixteenth century.

‘ Montfaucon tells us, that the comma occurs in Greek manuscripts of above a thousand years antiquity. Maittaire ob-

serves, that "the crooked comma was derived from the Greeks, who used it long before the Latins; and that in some old Latin books it is not used; in others, written in the form of a small perpendicular line.

"The Greeks had no semicolon, Its present form [ ; ] was introduced in the ninth century, in Greek manuscripts, as a note of interrogation; for which purpose it is still employed in Greek books. Maittaire informs us, that "he could find no semicolon in old English books, or in Latin ones, much before the fifteenth century."

"The two points, which form the colon, are taken from Latin writers. In Greek, the colon is now expressed by a single point near the top of the letter; and the period is placed at the bottom.

"The modern note of interrogation was probably derived from that of the Greeks: that is, from the semicolon, by only changing the position of the two points; or by placing the comma above the period in this manner [ ? ] and giving it a little curve towards the right hand, at the bottom.

"The point, which we call the note of exclamation, was not used by the Greek; nor has it been admitted into any edition of any Greek classic, which I have observed, except Burman's *Aristophanes*, in a few places. But the use of it is recommended by Dr. Burton, in the preface to his *Pentalogia*, printed at Oxford in 1758.

"At present, all European writers make use of the following points, as marks of division, which take their name from the sentence, or the clause, which they are respectively employed to distinguish.

- |                |   |                     |     |
|----------------|---|---------------------|-----|
| 1. A comma     | , | 5. An interrogation | ?   |
| 2. A semicolon | ; | 6. An exclamation   | !   |
| 3. A colon     | : | 7. A parenthesis    | ( ) |
| 4. A period    | . |                     |     |

To these may be added the dash —

"From this short history of punctuation we may deduce the following conclusions:

"First, as it appears that the stops, in the ancient Greek and Roman classics, were not inserted in the text by the authors themselves, but have been added by subsequent grammarians or modern editors, we may infer, that the true sense of all obscure and ambiguous passages, in their works, is not to be determined by commas, colons, and periods, but by the rules of good sense and rational criticism.

"Secondly, as it is very evident, that the points affect the sense of all literary compositions in the highest degree, and that even a comma may illuminate, or totally obscure, the finest passage in Homer or Virgil, we see the absolute necessity of paying a strict attention to this branch of orthography, in all new editions of the classics. Here then is a spacious field for

for the investigation of editors and commentators. Here they may exert their penetration, their taste, and judgment, with advantage, without being biased, restrained, or controlled by the authority of any printed copy, or any manuscript whatever.

These remarks may be illustrated by an obvious example. Many learned commentators and editors of Horace have printed the following stanza, with a colon after *urna* :

Omnes eodem cogimur : omnium  
Versatur urna : serius, ocius  
Sors exitura, et nos in æternum  
Exilium impositura cymbæ. Lib. ii. od. 3.

This punctuation makes a false quantity in *urna* ; and should be rectified in this manner :

Omnes eodem cogimur : omnium  
Versatur urnâ, serius, ocius  
Sors exitura, & nos in æternum  
Exilium impositura cymbæ.

By this small alteration of the point, the word *sors* is united to *versatur*, as its nominative case ; and the false quantity is avoided.

An eminent satirist has attempted, in the following couplet, to throw a ridicule on those critics, who employ themselves in rectifying the errors of punctuation :

“ Commas and points they set exactly right,  
And ’twere a sin to rob them of their mite.”

But this stroke of raillery can only affect those annotators, whose ideas are entirely confined to trivial circumstances, who extend their enquiries no farther than a point, or a various reading, and have no taste for the more important and exquisite beauties of an elegant composition.

The author says, he has only observed the note of exclamation in Burman’s Aristophanes. We have seen it in War-ton’s Theocritus.

In the second chapter, he proceeds to consider the proper use and application of all the points.

In the course of this work, he has laid down a number of clear and practical rules, which he has illustrated by examples.

An Appendix, subjoined to this Essay, contains an explanation of the characters used in grammar, rhetoric, and poetry ; a short account of the accents in different languages ; and an enquiry into the origin of the arithmetical figures.

An easy, familiar, practical treatise on the subject of punctuation, has been long wanted for the use of schools, and indeed for all persons, who have any pretensions to a liberal education. This elegant performance will amply supply the de-

deficiency; and will not only afford the reader all necessary information, with respect to the structure and division of sentences; but, at the same time, is happily calculated to elevate his ideas, to improve his taste, and to furnish him many beautiful sentiments on moral and philosophical subjects.

*The Follies of a Day; or, the Marriage of Figaro. A Comedy, as it is now performing at the Theatre Royal, Covent-Garden. From the French of M. de Beaumarchais. By Thomas Holcroft. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Robinson.*

*La Folle Journée ou le Mariage de Figaro, Comédie en cinq Actes & en Prose. Par Mr. Caron de Beaumarchais. 8vo. 2s. Hookham.*

**I**T would be unpolite to oppose the united judgments of Paris and London, as well as pedantic to speak of plots, characters, and sentiment. It is a language to which the *petits maitres* of either metropolis are strangers; we fear it would be in vain to refer them to Aristotle, or even to Bossu. The frequenters of the theatre are acquainted with the Spanish Barber; and they will, in this comedy, meet with similar characters. Rosina is now the countess Almaviva, and neglected by her husband. Susan her maid, betrothed to Figaro, engages the attention of the count; and his lady appears to be attached to the page. But Susan is too fond of Figaro to listen to the seductive tales of her master; and the count too attentive to permit the accomplishment of the page's wishes. The intricacies, which these different pursuits occasion, fill up the scene, till a mutual eclairessment concludes the whole. The difficulties in the way of Figaro's wedding are increased by the attachment of Marcelina, Rosina's duenna, who has procured from him a promise of marriage, under the penalty of a considerable sum, formerly lent; but these are removed, by discovering that Figaro is really her son, by doctor Bartholo, a distinguished personage in the piece. The scene of the trial, occasioned by this contract, is supported with great humour.

The plot is very intricate, and many stage-tricks are employed; which the reader will find a difficulty to comprehend. To a spectator they are more clear and striking: the whole however too much resembles a pantomime. The dialogue is sprightly, and the turns are often pointed and happy: we are generally interested in the fates of the amiable Susan, and her lively bridegroom; we shall therefore insert a scene which relates to them.

‘ Enter

Enter Susan.

(She comes up to the Count's elbow while he is speaking, and is surprised to see him in such an ill humour.)

Susan. My lord!

Count. My lady!

Susan. My lady has sent me for your lordship's smelling-bottle; she has got the vapours.

Count. Here; and when she has done with it, borrow it for yourself,—it may be useful.

Susan. I the vapours, my lord! Oh no, that's too polite a disease for a servant to pretend to!

Count. Fits may come;—love so violent as your's cannot bear disappointment; and when Figaro marries Marcelina—

Susan. Oh, suppose the worst, my lord, we can pay Marcelina with the portion your lordship has promised us!

Count. I promis'd you a portion?

Susan. If my ears did not deceive me, I understood as much.

Count. Yes, if you had pleas'd to understand me, but since you do not.—

Susan. (Pretending bashfulness) It's always soon enough to own one's weakness, my lord.

Count. (with an instant change of countenance) What! wilt thou take a walk this evening in the garden, by the pavilion?

Susan. Don't I take walks every evening, my lord?

Count. Nay, nay, but let us understand each other—No pavilion, no marriage.

Susan. And no marriage, no pavilion, my lord! (curtysying.)

Count. What a witty little devil! I wonder what she does to fascinate me so!—But prithee tell me why hast thou always, till now, refused with such obstinacy? This very morning, thou knowest—

Susan. This morning, my lord!—What, and the page behind the great chair!

Count. Oh, true! I had forgot!—But when Basil has spoken to thee in my behalf.

Susan. Is it necessary, my lord, such a knave as Basil should know every thing that passes?

Count. She is right again!—But—(Suspicious) thou wilt go, now, and tell Figaro all.

Susan. To be sure, my lord. I always tell him all—except what is necessary to conceal.

Count. Ah the hussy! What a charming little knave it is! Run, run to thy mistress; she is waiting, and may suspect us.

Susan. (Hesitating) So your lordship can't perceive that I only wanted a pretext to speak to your lordship.

(The Count, unable to contain his transport, is going to kiss her, but hears somebody coming, and they separate.)

Count.

‘*Count.* (*As he turns*) She absolutely bewitches me! I had sworn to think no more of her, but she winds me just as she pleases!

(*The Count goes off, and Figaro enters, but the Count hearing Figaro’s voice, returns and peeps*)

‘*Figaro.* Well, my Susan, what does he say?

‘*Susan.* Hush! hush! he is just gone—Thou hast gained thy cause—Run, run, run.

(*Exit Susan, running, Figaro following.*)

‘*Figaro.* Well, but how, how, my charmer? (*Exeunt.*)

‘*Re-enter Count.*

‘*Count.* Thou hast gained thy cause—Aha! and is it so, my pair of knaves!—Am I your dupe then?—A very pretty net! But the cuckoo is not caught—Come—Proceed we to judgment! (*With passion*) Be we just!—cool!—impartial! inflexible.’

The original we have received from Amsterdam, which seems to have been printed without the consent of the author. There is indeed a striking resemblance between these copies of a celebrated original. After a careful comparison, the variations in the English copy seem just, and necessary to its success on an English stage. The pleadings, so far as relate to the different senses of ‘and’ and ‘or,’ are added by Mr. Holcroft, while a slight scene, relating to a former engagement of Basil and Marcelina, is omitted. It is not necessary to mention all the varieties in these two copies; we shall point out one only, to show our English readers how they are represented on the Parisian stage.

In Mr. Holcroft’s play, the Count is said to be appointed ambassador to Paris; and he examines how far Figaro suspects his designs on Susan, by proposing his attendance as secretary. He mentions however the difficulty which will arise from his not understanding French; and the reply of Figaro, which turns on the use of ‘s’il vous plait,’ is pleasant. In the French copy, the embassy is to London, and the difficulty is, that Figaro does not understand English.

‘*Count.* Figaro, I intended to carry thee to London.

‘*Figaro.* Has my lord then changed his plan?

‘*Count.* Many reasons have determined me. First, thou dost not understand English.

‘*Figaro.* I understand *god dem*.

‘*Count.* What do you say?

‘*Figaro.* I say, that I understand *god dem*. It is a fine language, this English; a little of it will go a great way. With *god dem* in English, you may have what you will. Would you wish to taste a good fat pullet, go to a tavern, and do only so (*making a sign of turning the spit*), and say *god dem*, they will bring



bring you a buttock of beef salted, without bread. If you wish for a good bottle of burgundy or claret, (*imitating the drawing of a cork*), say *god dem*, and they will bring you a pot of beer, in a delightful state, the froth foaming over the brim. It is charming. Do you see on the Mall one of those beauties, who walk with down-cast eyes, and mincing steps, with her elbows stuck into her sides, and her legs crossing in every motion? put your fingers on your mouth tenderly, and say *god dem*, she gives you a hearty slap on the cheek like a porter, a proof that she understands you.—We know very well that the English, in their conversation, put in words here and there; but it is easy to see, that *god dem* is the chief part of their language.

This picture, like every stage-representation, is violently exaggerated; but the repetition of execrations is still too frequent: may this wholesome severity have a proper effect!

There is a short speech of Marcelina, which we wish Mr. Holcroft had preserved; for it is a trait of a female mind, copied from nature. After Marcelina is found to be the mother of Figaro, he becomes uneasy at the Count's attentions to his bride; and, from some equivocal circumstances, suspects her sincerity. In this state of mind he leaves his mother.

*Marc. (alone)* Adieu, my son. I too know the place of rendezvous, and will be there to watch Susan; or rather let me give her notice of it, she is so sweet a creature. Women in general, when we are not roused by a personal affront against each other, are sufficiently inclined to defend our common interests against this terrible, though sometimes credulous, race of men.

We suspect that this sentence was dictated by a woman, at least by one well acquainted with the sex. No oracle ever gave a truer answer.

We must now dismiss these pleasing performances, which have so long attracted the attention of the most brilliant audiences in the first cities in the world.

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*Fashionable Levities, a Comedy in five Acts. As it is now performing at the Theatre Royal, Covent-Garden. By Leonard Macnally, Esq. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Robinson.*

**I**S it that fashion has laid aside her varied garb, and is become uniform; or that the fancy and invention, decayed by too great exertion, are no longer able to change the form of follies? Is it from such causes, or the fault of the author, that the 'Fashionable Levities' of the present day are nearly the same with those which have excited the attention of the moralist, and the spleen of the satirist, in almost every age?

The revolutions in our dress and our furniture are rapid and violent, while the mind is consistent in its eccentricities, unchangeable in its trifling pursuits, because a variety must be chiefly produced by its exertions. Their dress is supplied by others, but the follies of the fashionable world are their own. Though much may, in this way, be alleged for the want of novelty in our author's play, yet perhaps it will not entirely excuse him. A new character may be introduced among former personages, situation and incident may be varied, and even old Levities, exposed in new lights, might have entertained; though, if this had been done, the author would have probably produced a play not very inconsistent with its title.

The Levities which our author has styled 'Fashionable,' are play and intrigue. Lady Flippant Savage, though not without good principles, is engaged in both, and her levity is well contrasted with the amiable tenderness of her husband's ward, Constantia. The lover of Constantia seems undeserving of such a heart; for, though she is his 'home,' the 'visits which he pays,' are numerous. We think that this volatile conduct should have been more severely punished than by a temporary apprehension of losing his principal object. Ordeal, a merchant, who has gained a fortune by trade, intends to marry his ward Clara. His character is that of Freeport, in the English Merchant, and his conduct that of Don Diego, in the Padlock: Clara is the resemblance of Leonora. That his ward may however not be without *entertainment*, he procures a tutor to instruct her in the *dead languages*: in this guise, captain Douglas contrives to be introduced to her; Lady Flippant also gains admission, and, like Lady Fidget, in the Country Wife, tells her of the great pleasures to be found in fashionable life. It will be obvious, that this comedy must end by a marriage between the lovers, which is effected with little artifice, by Ordeal's overhearing the instructions of Douglas, and finding them not so *strictly classical* as he expected. But though Douglas gains Clara's affections by a mean disguise, he is still represented as a man of honour. Lady Flippant is reclaimed from her levities, and Sir Buzzard recovers his estate, by discovering the cheats of the sharpers, who had won it at play. The dialogues, between this fashionable couple, are lively and pleasing; and indeed the language of the whole play is agreeable and animated.—Our readers will now understand the following scene, which we shall extract as a specimen.

‘ Enter Ordeal and Douglas.

‘ Ord. I can contain no longer!—out of my house!

Lady

' *Lady Flip*. Shame! Shame! What, listening to the private conversation of ladies?

' *Ord*. Private conversation! open, abominable instruction,—how can you answer to your conscience, for attempting to poison a young creature's morals!—retire, retire my lamb.—

' *Clara*. Farewell, ladies.

' *Wid*. Adieu, pretty Clara.

' *Lady Flip*. And remember our instructions. [Exit Clara.]

' *Ord*. Instructions!—downright libertine principles!—you may laugh, ladies,—you may laugh. Ha, ha, ha!

' *Lady Flip*. } Ha, ha, ha!

' *Wid*. }

' *Doug*. Perhaps the ladies think their beauty sufficient excuse for their levity,—but ah, they are wrong—naething can atone for want of delicacy, without which there can be nae charms in the face, nae elegance in the person.

*Enter Colonel Staff.*

' *Col*. Ordeal, your most obedient—call'd at your ladyship's house, and Miss Constance inform'd me you were on a visit here.

' *Wid*. We came to see Mr. Ordeal's pure nature, and he has affronted us!

' *Col*. Affronted!—impossible!

' *Doug*. Haud your tongue, lady, haud your tongue!—levity degrades a woman, however her name may be elevated by birth, teetle, or fortin.

' *Col*. Who are you?

' *Doug*. A man.

' *Nich*. Yes, and a scholar ecod!

' *Ord*. [To the women.] Out of my house!

' *Lady Flip*. I'll prophecy for your comfort, if you marry Clara she'll soon draw a comparison between your winter frown, and the summer smiles of a pretty fellow.

' *Ord*. I despise your prophecy—Oracles have long since ceased; when they existed the devil spoke through them, which may be your ladyship's case.

' *Col*. Ordeal, take care, I wear a sword.

' *Doug*. I weer a sword.

' *Col*. Do you daar echo my words?

' *Doug*. Do you daar echo my words?

' *Nich*. Knock out his teeth with one of your hard ones.

' *Col*. Rafal [raises his hand.]

' *Doug*. Rascal! hear first, and strike after,—you appear an officer, but I am convinced you are nae soldier; touch but a hair o' my heed wi your hand, and the dee'l gang away wi my soul, gin I dinna split you through the crown.

' *Nich*. Sir, Sir, shall I bring him the old broad sword.

' *Col*. There was just such a fellow as this at the Havannah—

' *Ord*. There were several such fellows at the Havannah, and such fellows only could have beaten the brave fellows who defended it,—were you there?

' *Col*,

‘*Col.* My regiment did service there—and if it had not been for a damn’d ague,—but no matter,—I overlook this fellow’s insolence,—but Mr. Ordeal, you have been too severe on the ladies.

‘*Doug.* Too severe on the ladies—I am your echo again—ounds, do you take the man for a Shrove-tide cock, set up to receive blows without returning them?

‘*Wid.* Let’s go, we are not likely to receive protection from the colonel.

‘*Doug.* I ken, madam, what you are.

‘*Wid.* Stand off, fellow—

‘*Col.* These are ladies of honour.—

‘*Doug.* Their honour, like your courage, is in their own possession, but remember the character of both is in the opinion of others.

‘*Wid.* Do you hear the fellow?

‘*Col.* He’s mad and not worth notice.

‘*Lady Flip.* Were I Clara, I should prefer a young Indian, though sure of being his widow, and burning with him in a month, to living with you for an age.

‘*Col.* Ordeal, you shall answer this—but—

‘*Doug.* But what dare you say?

‘*Col.* Say—I say—my immediate duty is to attend the ladies. [*Exit Colonel, Lady Flippant, and Widow.*]

‘*Ord.* My brave Caledonian! [*Shakes hands*] but here, here, step out and get yourself new rigged. [*Gives Douglas money.*]

‘*Nich.* Yes, he is out of feather and wants pluming.

‘*Ord.* But you, you firrah, if ever you let those women enter my doors again, out you go—oh, what a fierce beast, and perilous enemy to the commonwealth, is a wicked woman.

[*Exeunt.*]

*The Patriot, a Tragedy. From a Manuscript of the late Dr. Johnson, corrected by himself. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Goulding.*

THE story of this play is that of Leonidas, who bravely fought and died at Thermopylæ, with a slight episode to take out the barrenness of the history. It may be thought not easy to wander in a path so beaten; yet the author has admitted a strong contradiction. The oracle, by which one of the race of Hercules was exacted as a victim, is said to have been procured by the treachery of Leontychides, joint king of Sparta with Leonidas; but every other part of the tragedy supports its authenticity, and the event is represented, as decided by the death of the hero. The unity of place is well preserved; but that of time is greatly violated. The greater part of a battle is fought, and a military stratagem practised, while not more than six lines are repeated.

A play,

A play, obtruded on the public notice under the name of Dr. Johnson, to have supported the imposition, should have been distinguished by the manly energy of the style, by the morality of the sentiment, and the precision of the language. In all these respects the author fails. The lines would not be known for poetry, were they not printed in that form; the sentiment creeps in prosaic dulness; and we look, in vain, for depth of thought or force of expression. There are two instances of self-murder, for to seek death in battle is little different from aiming a blow at our own breasts: there are two such instances, without a line expressive of the crime; without even the saving clause of Addison, 'I fear I have been too hasty.' Little sagacity is therefore necessary to pronounce the culprit, guilty of literary imposition, if the fact were not already known. The author is said to be a Mr. Sympson, and the play to have received a slight revival from Dr. Johnson.

The following scene is not void of merit; and if the rest had resembled it, we should not indeed have acquitted the prisoner, but have thought that his good character might have softened the rigour of the sentence,—viz. GENERAL OBLIVION. May this play be as if it had NEVER been!

*' Enter ARIANA, led by AGIS, and attended by POLYDORUS in a Slave's Habit.*

*' Leonidas.* Oh unhappy princess!  
For such thy mournful, but majestic mien,  
Bespeaks thee. Why at this untimely hour  
Hast thou, regardless of thy sex's softness,  
And all the native horrors of the night,  
Dar'd to approach an hostile camp? O speak,  
Secure of all relief our power can give.

*[Ariana opens her veil.*

*' Ariana.* If greatness join'd with misery can claim  
Thy just compassion, know that Ariana,  
Great Xerxes' sister, supplicates thy aid;  
And if a transient blush shou'd overspread  
These cheeks, grown wan with woe, while I unfold  
My miserable tale, do not impute  
The effect of modesty to guilty shame.  
Know then, I lov'd, with tenderness I lov'd,  
The noble, gentle, generous Teribazus,  
The bravest youth that e'er up list'd arm  
In Persia's sacred cause. His tender soul  
Burnt with an equal fire; but high-born pride  
Forbad my tongue to speak, while deep despair  
Seal'd up his lips, till dying he reveal'd  
The fatal secret to my noble brother.

Now if thy soul e'er felt the power of love,  
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H h

Let

Let some compassionate and friendly hand  
Point out my lover's corse; I ask no more.

*'Leonidas, aside.* Such are the sorrows which o'erwhelm  
thy soul,

My dearest, lost Cleone: at this sad sight  
Thy much-lov'd image rises to my view,  
And quite unmans my native resolution. [Weeps.  
Pardon me, fair, the momentary thought;

[Turns to Ariana.

I turn'd from thee, to an unhappy wife,  
Whom thy afflictions brought to my remembrance.  
My gentle Agis, let it be thy care  
To guide this princess to her hapless lover,  
Who much lamented fell beneath this arm;  
And give her aid, to bear his body back  
To Persia's camp; or do his funeral rites,  
With all the pomp our slender means can furnish.'

## MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

### P O L I T I C A L.

*A Letter to the People of Scotland, on the alarming Attempt to infringe the Articles of the Union, and introduce a most pernicious Innovation, by diminishing the Number of the Lords of Session. By James Boswell, Esq. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Dilly.*

MR. Boswell has, on several occasions, manifested a zealous regard for the honour and interests of his country. In our Review for January, 1784, we gave an account of a Letter addressed by him likewise to the people of Scotland; in which he endeavoured, with his usual warmth, to excite their indignation against the celebrated East India bill. The subject which has again called forth his patriotic exertions, is a plan lately proposed, of reducing the Court of Session in Scotland, from fifteen judges, the number of which it consists at present, to ten; and of increasing the salaries of those ten, by dividing among them the emoluments of the other five, in proportion as the court, by the death of some of its members, should be diminished to the standard above mentioned. A motion for this purpose was recently made in the house of commons by the lord advocate, and negatived. But by a subsequent motion, a resolution passed, that the salaries of the judges in Scotland should be increased to the full extent of what had been proposed in the preceding plan. Whether Mr. Boswell's opposition to the reduction of the Scottish judges operated in any degree towards defeating that proposal, we know not; but it is certain that his arguments are well calculated to excite among the people of Scotland a disapprobation of such a measure. Con-

sidering

sidering that, by the constitution of Scotland, the Court of Session is not only a body of judges, but a standing jury, Mr. Boswell insists that fifteen, instead of being deemed a superfluous number, seems rather insufficient for the proper administration of justice; and he endeavours to shew, from the mode of conducting business in the Court of Session, that there is occasion for at least the full present number of the Scottish judges. A reduction of them Mr. Boswell likewise attempts to prove would be an actual infringement of the nineteenth article of the Union.

‘Innovation frightens me, says he, because I never can be sure what will come next. “Hitherto shalt thou come, but no further; and here shall thy proud waves be stayed!” is not for mortals to say. My lord Marchmont did me the honour of a visit a few years ago, and made a remark, which still vibrates in my ear: “Sir, this country has been governed by wise men; and we have had no notion what mischief fools could do.”—At another time, talking of this very subject of lessening the number of judges in Scotland, which has been formerly mooted, his lordship said, “No. It must not be. Scotland is far from the sun of government, and must be lighted by many lustres!”

Besides the more serious arguments with which our author opposes the diminution of the Court of Session, he adds the following: ‘But above all, I dislike this particular plot to revive the *Decemviri*. It is *ominous*. In the words of Livy I will say, “*non placere nomen; periculosum libertati esse.*”

The cause no longer exists which excited Mr. Boswell to oppose the innovation once suggested; but we may venture to affirm that his Letter will yet be read with pleasure by his countrymen; though we imagine they will not universally join with him in opinion, that the salaries of the Scottish judges ought not to be increased. The Letter contains many sensible observations, and, to use the author’s own words, is richly sprinkled with ‘egotism and vanity;’ but these qualities, from the lively and eccentric manner in which they operate, serve only to render it more entertaining.

*An Essay on the actual Resources, for re-establishing the Finances of Great Britain. By George Craufurd, Esq. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Debrett.*

After so much has been written on the finances of this country, it may justly appear surprising, that the author of the present Essay should attempt to establish a system diametrically opposite to the sentiments of all who have investigated the science of political œconomy. Mr. Craufurd’s opinion on this subject being singular, we shall lay before our readers a general account of it, in his own words.

‘I consider the national debt as an excrescence on the body politic, and so inherent to the constitution from its nature, that its growth even has prevented worse disorders from taking place;

an operation therefore to reduce it is impolitic and dangerous, while cutting it off would attack the principles of life.

‘The remedy which I shall propose for putting a stop to the dangers that threaten Great Britain, will no doubt have the effect of augmenting the size of this excrescence, but the body to which it adheres, will receive a much greater increase of strength for supporting it, and finally be required to give a less quantity of nourishment for its existence, which can only terminate with their mutual dissolution.

‘I repeat, therefore, that it is not the reimbursement of a capital, but the solidity and regularity in the payment of the interest, which produces public credit in Great Britain, and that the use of this credit may, and ought to be substituted instead of taxes, in order to pay the peace establishment.

‘I assert moreover, that this substitution will increase population, consumption, industry, and trade; and of course augment the annual produce of the remaining taxes to a much greater degree, than is necessary on account of these additional loans.’

As we cannot agree with this author, that the national debt is an excrescence inherent to the constitution, we must totally differ from him with respect to the expediency of leaving it for ever unreduced. He has the address to deliver his plan in a manner which counterfeits the appearance of scientific enquiry; but he seems to have mistaken for a real principle, a phantom which his imagination has started in the wilds of hypothetical speculation. The system proposed in this Essay may be comprised within a very narrow compass, and speaks a language to the following effect. ‘Upon no public emergency, ever impose any new taxes, but supply the hands of government plentifully with loans, and let the interest of the money be paid out of the produce of the old taxes, which by this policy will prodigiously increase.’ But we would ask the author, where are men to be found who will advance money to the public upon the foundation which he mentions? Let him produce such men before the chancellor of the exchequer; and then, and not till then, his proposal may be admitted as practicable.

*The Proposed Reformation in Parliament considered. By John Taylor, A. M. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Rivington.*

This speech was delivered, in part, at the county-meeting held at York, January 1, 1784, when the freeholders had convened for the purpose of deciding with regard to the propriety of a parliamentary reform. Mr. Taylor, in opposition to the prejudices of those who favoured the popular side of the question, argues strongly against that measure, which he combats with a variety of objections. His disapprobation is expressed not only by argument but ridicule; a circumstance which, at the same time that it evinces his zeal, affords a sufficient reason for the speech having been delivered only in part.



*Thoughts on the Freedom of Election.* By John Burnby. 8vo. 6d. Wilkie.

A most superficial and desultory production, which seems to have owed its origin entirely to the fallacious vanity of authorship.

*We have been all in the Wrong.* 8vo. 2s. Debrett.

This is the production of a friend to Mr. Fox's East India bill, and to the public measures which occasioned the dissolution of the last parliament. The author's prejudices appear too evidently to be questioned; and the subject is no longer a matter of any general concern.

*The Parliamentary Guide; or the Members' and Electors' complete Companion.* 8vo. 7s. Stockdale.

We are here presented with a historical account of the several cities, counties, and boroughs in Great Britain; their right of election; when they were first represented in parliament; the number of voters in each place; and a recital of the various statutes relative to the election of members, and the succession of parliaments from the Restoration, beside several other articles. The collection is intended for the use of members and electors; and to such it is likely to prove acceptable.

*A Key to the Parliamentary Debates.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Debrett.

The production of some political wag, neither destitute of humour nor acuteness.

*The Commercial Regulations with Ireland explained and considered, in the Speech of the Right Hon. Mr. Orde, in the House of Commons in Ireland.* 8vo. 1s. Debrett.

This pamphlet consists of the speech of the right hon. Mr. Orde, upon opening the subject in the house of commons in Ireland; with an authentic copy of the Propositions, and of the observations made upon them by the committee of merchants and traders of the city of London. According to the representation of the committee, which is sufficiently known to the public, those Propositions have been censured as pernicious to the trade of this country.

*Mr. Pitt's Reply to Mr. Orde.* 8vo. 1s. Jarvis.

This is said to be a correct abstract of the speeches of those right honourable gentlemen, as delivered in the different sessions of Great Britain and Ireland, on the subject of the new commercial regulations. The design of the compiler is to show, from a contrast of the two speeches, that the British minister, to favour the reception of the Propositions, held a different language in each country.

*To guard against Misrepresentation, &c.* 8vo. 1s. Stockdale.

This pamphlet contains what is said to be an Authentic Statement, faithfully extracted from the Report of the Committee of the

the Privy Council, appointed by his Majesty for the Consideration of all Matters relating to the intended system of Commerce between Great Britain and Ireland. To the Statement are added Observations, addressed to the Merchants and Manufacturers of Great Britain, which, to those who think them well founded, must afford very ominous apprehensions.

*A short View of the Proposals lately made for the final Adjustment of the Commercial System between Great Britain and Ireland.* 8vo. 1s. Stockdale.

In this pamphlet are delineated the gratuitous concessions made in favour of Ireland by Lord North and Mr. Fox; the effects that have resulted from them; and the extensions now proposed by stipulation. From the whole, the author draws a favourable inference with regard to the proposed regulations.

*The Arrangements with Ireland considered.* 8vo. 2s. Stockdale.

The propositions relative to the commerce between Great Britain and Ireland are vindicated by this author dispassionately, and with much force of argument.

*Report of the Lords of the Committee of Council, appointed for the Consideration of all Matters relating to Trade and Foreign Plantations.* 8vo. 2s. Almon.

This Report relates to the two following Questions, referred to the committee by his majesty's order in council of the fourteenth of January last, viz. first, upon the propriety of reducing the duties payable in Great Britain on the importation of goods, the growth and manufacture of Ireland, to the same rate as the duties payable in Ireland, on the importation of the like goods, the growth and manufacture of Great Britain. Secondly, what *references* [*preferences*] are now given to the importation of any article, the growth, produce, or manufacture of Ireland, by any duty or prohibition on the importation, use, or sale of the like article from foreign parts; and how far it may be the interest of Great Britain, in future, to continue or alter the same. The evidence exhibited in this pamphlet, seems from its nature to be the most satisfactory that can be obtained, relative to the effect of the intended commercial regulations between Great Britain and Ireland; for it conveys the genuine sentiments of a number of manufacturers, unconnected with each other, and apparently untainted with the prejudices which have so much infected many of the writers and speakers on this subject.

*Plans for reducing the extraordinary Expenses of the Nation, and gradually paying off the National Debt.* By G. Box. 8vo. 1s. Sold by the Author.

Though Mr. Box proposes a variety of schemes for alleviating the public burthens, yet unfortunately they require the interposition of additional taxes. By the objects of taxation which he suggests, the poor may not be affected immediately; but,

but, from the complicated operation of taxes, an impost on any one article never fails, in time, to increase the price of every other; on which account, we suspect that our author's plans, however well intended, might rather prove fallacious than serviceable.

*Considerations on the Advantages of an improved System of Finance.*  
4to. 2s. Wilkie.

The author of this pamphlet sets out with condemning the policy of taxing articles of manufacture during the operations they undergo previously to their being completed; and recommends apparel and food, as more suitable objects of taxation. On this principle he proposes that taylor's should be licensed; that they should collect from their customers five *per cent.* on plain cloaths, seven and a half *per cent.* on silk mixtures, and ten *per cent.* on silk and embroidery. That they should stamp their work, and swear to their books; that mantua-makers and milliners do the same. He likewise proposes that butchers take out licences in the same manner; that they tax their meat a halfpenny a pound, and swear to their books.

*Original Papers relating to the Rights and Pretensions of the Nabob of Arcot, and the Rajah of Tanjore, and to the Demands of the British Subjects on the Nabob of Arcot.* 8vo. 2s. Debreit.

These Papers consist of extracts from the late act of parliament relative to the rights and pretensions of the nabob and rajah; to which are subjoined other official documents on the same subject.

*Report from the Select Committee appointed to examine the Reports of the Directors of the East India Company.* 8to. 1s. 6d. Wilkie.

In the course of this Report, we meet with many acute remarks, calculated to evince that the circumstances of the company do not warrant the expectations held out in the reports of the Directors.

*The Reporter, or the Substance of a Debate in the House of Commons, May 10, 1785 &c.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Walter.

The idea of this pamphlet appears to have been taken from 'Anticipation,' which the author has not badly imitated. Mr. Pitt is introduced as proposing a tax upon salt, in imitation of the *Gabelle* in France. A debate ensues, in which the members of opposition endeavour to throw ridicule upon the ministry and its adherents. The chancellor of the exchequer is left in a minority, and precipitately quits the house; an incident which affords great triumph to the opposite party; and excites a general belief that he must soon retire from the helm of government.

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\* This Pamphlet was published in April.

*Thoughts on the Merits of the Westminster Scrutiny.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Debrett.

The Westminster scrutiny is now generally considered as one of those farcical transactions which frequently arise from the intemperance of opposite parties. As such it is treated, and not improperly censured by the author of this pamphlet.

*Speech of Lieutenant-general Hale.* 8vo. 1s. Baldwin.

In this Speech, which was delivered at the nomination and election of a member of parliament, in the room of sir George Saville, general Hale appears to have greatly exceeded the bounds of moderation in the display of his political sentiments. Had he confined his eloquence towards enforcing a parliamentary reform, he might have been seconded by many freeholders of the county of York; but it is not surprising that his motions for instructing their representatives to procure a repeal of the game-laws, the qualification act, &c. and especially the riot-act, should meet with no support from any member of the assembly.

*The Deformity of the Doctrine of Libels and Informations ex Officio, with a View to the Case of the Dean of St. Asaph, &c.* By M. Dawes, Esq. 8vo. 1s. Stockdale.

In this pamphlet, which consists of a letter to the honourable Thomas Erskine, the author vindicates the rights of jurymen, and approves himself at least a zealous friend to what he considers as the cause of liberty.

## P O E T R Y.

*A Poem addressed to the Armies of the United States of America.* By David Humphries, Esq. Colonel in the Service of the United States. 4to. 2s. Kearsley.

The following lines will possibly give no very favourable idea of this performance.

'Such are the glories of the allied band!  
And such the dawning hope that cheers our land!  
Since Gallia's fire, high on a throne of state,  
Sublimely good, magnanimously great!  
Protector of the rights of human kind!  
Weigh'd the dread contest in his royal mind.'

One would imagine that the author should have been perfectly acquainted with the proper accent of 'allied,' a word emphatically felt by us. The other lines verge towards the burlesque. 'High on a throne of state,' seems superfluous, and dragged in to fill out the line. The pomp of *Gallia's fire* is not here the great object intended to be conveyed, as Satan's is, in the second book of *Paradise Lost*, which opens with the same words, but his extensive benevolence; on which account we think a closet would have been better adapted than a throne, for exciting

citing in the breast of a despotic monarch, this ardor in the cause of liberty, the tender compassion that he felt for the distressed Americans, and those enlarged sentiments of humanity that impelled him to vindicate the rights and privileges to which his own subjects are strangers. Can the author seriously suppose, that France espoused the cause of his countrymen from such generous and disinterested principles?—The performance however may, with some trifling exceptions, be justly styled a good poem, but not a very pleasing one to good Englishmen. If success sanctifies a cause, it cannot authorise illiberal reflections. That during the course of our warfare in America, many unwarrantable, many cruel acts, were perpetrated by individuals in the British army, we will readily suppose; but the general stigma thrown on them as ‘fierce russians;’ the insinuation, that American prisoners were treated with extreme severity, is ungenerous and unjust.

‘Why Britain! rag’d thine insolence and scorn?  
Why burst thy vengeance on the wretch forlorn?  
The cheerless captive to slow death consign’d,  
Chill’d with keen frost, in prison glooms confin’d;  
Of hope bereft, by thy vile minions curs’d,  
With hunger famish’d, and consum’d with thirst,  
Without one friend,—when death’s last horrors flung,  
Roll’d the wild eye, and gnaw’d the anguish’d tongue.

‘Why Britain! in thine arrogance and pride,  
Didst thou Heaven’s violated laws deride,  
Mock human misery with contemptuous sneers,  
And fill thy cup of guilt with orphans’ tears?  
The widow’s wailing, and the wretch’s groan,  
Rise in remembrance to th’ eternal throne,  
While the red flame thro’ the broad concave driv’n,  
Calls down the vengeance of insulted heav’n.’

The well-known treatment which many British officers experienced in American dungeons, the persecution of the unhappy loyalists after the sword was sheathed, sufficiently shew, without any exaggeration, that the charge of cruelty against the subjects of Great Britain comes with an ill grace from a member of the Continental States. We mean not to recriminate, but think the well-wishers to either nation should endeavour to heal, not widen, the wounds they so late inflicted on each other. The author’s countrymen are now possessed of that independence they so long aspired after: they have the satisfaction to be their own tax-masters, and to model their government in what manner they please: why then endeavour to irritate them, now the great event is decided, by ill-founded accusations against their late fellow-subjects, in whose prosperity or misfortunes they are no longer interested, except that, in the commercial line, mutual faith and good will must redound to their mutual welfare?

*A.Rho-*

*A Rhodomontade of Politics; or a Series of Fables, with Notes Variorum.* 4to. 3s. Appleyard.

These political fables are contrived upon the principle of keeping the ministerial and opposition parties in their present situation. But how long those arrangements shall coincide with the sentiments of the author, time only can determine.

*Billy Braft; a Political Hudibrasfic.* 4to. 1s. 6d. Kearley.

The effusion of some poetaster, too despicable for the notice of criticism.

*An Heroic Epistle to Major Scott; with Notes historical and explanatory.* 4to. 1s. 6d. Kearley.

Major Scott, it is said, having boasted of his ancestry, in a speech delivered in St. Stephen's chapel, this author commemorates his progenitors as persons in a very humble situation of life. The design of the epistle is invidious; and it is executed in contemptible poetry.

*The Demoniad, or the Pests of a Day.* 4to. 2s. Fores.

Mrs. Siddons; Lord North, Mr. Lunardi, &c. are the objects of this satirical production, which contains much abuse, and many bad rhymes.

*The Bath Lovers; or, Mercenary Courtship.* By Mr. Whitechurch. 4to. 1s.

A very simple tale, and written with no less simplicity.

*Words of the Songs, Darts, &c. in the Nunnery, a Comic Opera.* 8vo. 6d. Egerton.

Some of these Songs are not destitute of humour; and many of them written in the true spirit of poetry.

## D R A M A T I C.

*Barataria; or Sancho turned Governor: a Farce in Two Acts.* By Frederic Pilon. 8vo. 1s. Almon.

This farce is avowedly taken from Don Quixote, through the medium of D'Urfey; and we accordingly recognise in it the unassimilating features of such a heterogeneous extraction.

*The Governess, or the Boarding School detected. A Dramatic Original, in Three Acts.* 8vo. 2s. 6d.

Those treatises which are professedly calculated for improving the mode of education, ought at least to be written with accuracy; but we are sorry to observe that the dramatic production before us is faulty, not less in the expression of sentiment, than in point of grammar and of rhyme. It appears nevertheless to be well intended, and may prove useful at boarding schools.

## NOVELS.

## N O V E L S.

*Belmont Grove; or, the Discovery. A Novel. In a Series of Letters. By a Lady. 2 Vols. 6s. Lane.*

This Discovery is not very improbable; but we were so little interested in the happiness of the parties, that we were not much affected by it. The whole is a very insipid, insignificant performance; and if this 'lady' had been debarred from pen and ink, the Reviewers would have had cause to bless the friendly hand which saved them from 'honest anguish and an aching head.'

*The Fatal Marriage. A Novel. In Two Vols. 12mo. 6s. Hookham.*

A pathetic story; but contains little novelty of character and sentiment. The tale is somewhat interesting; and the conclusion is affecting.—Was it not possible? was it not, thou severe moralist, to have preserved the amiable Fanny? The servile herd of minor critics might have talked of poetic justice; but thou wouldst have saved the feelings of humanity; thou mightest have preserved the cheek of beauty from a tear. We dare not however blame; for there is a lesson superior to tenderness, above the empty professions of gallantry.

*Camilla; or the Correspondence of a deceased Friend. 3 Vols. 12mo. 9s. Cals.*

This correspondent presents herself to us in the negligent undress of the closet, and tells her artless tale with simplicity, and probably with truth. Though frequently deceived by the pretensions to authenticity, we think there is much reason to consider these letters as original: the language is unequal, often incorrect; the characters and situations are not uncommon. Perhaps what we gain on the side of truth, we lose on that of entertainment; for many things have really happened, though they would raise little interest in the relation: yet we feel for the misfortunes of Camilla, and are pleased at her temporary successes.

*The Coalition; or Family Anecdotes. A Novel. By Mrs. Boys. 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. Bew.*

The events in this novel are amusing, though the denouement is improbable. The story is told with a sufficient share of elegance; but the language of each character is nearly the same. It is the language of the author; and her sentiments are frequently repeated without sufficient regard to the persons to whom they are attributed. This is consequently not a picture of real life, but bears nearly the same resemblance to it which a puppet-show does to a well written comedy. This fault excepted, for which we may be thought to have looked too narrowly, as well as the improbability of some of the incidents, the work is not

without merit; and it is not the least, that we never meet with the slightest hint which may tend to raise an indelicate idea. Decorum, in her strictest garb, presides over every page of the Coalition: may this meritorious example be more frequent!

*Anna, or the Memoirs of a Welsh Heiress, interspersed with Anecdotes of a Nabob.* 4 Vol. 12mo. 12s. Lane.

This is one of those histories which entertains by an intricate, rather than a very artful series of events, without any pretensions to exact discrimination of manners, or any very intimate acquaintance with the human heart. In the conduct of the story, we have little to praise or blame; similar characters have often been displayed, and the adventures are not uncommon. The mind is sometimes affected, and sometimes interested; but the principal attraction is a soothing melancholy, which pervades the whole, with a happy termination not highly improbable or greatly forced. In some parts of it the incidents are scarcely within the verge of probability; and the language is generally incorrect. We have seen many worse novels; more dull in their progress, and more pernicious in their tendency.

## M E D I C A L.

*A New Medical Dictionary; or, General Repository of Physic and Surgery.* By G. Mosherby, M. D. Folio. The Second Edition. 2l. 2s. Robinson.

We have, in our Review of the first edition of this useful work, vol. xliv page 327, given some account of the plan, and conduct of the author; so that our present object is to mention the alterations and improvements.

The chief use of a dictionary is, to explain, in a familiar manner, the terms of the art, and to assist the practitioner, who wants immediate assistance, and cannot turn to the more elaborate systems, or is unable from his situation to procure them. In a neighbouring kingdom, the form of a dictionary has been thought most convenient to treat of sciences, in their fullest extent; and this seems to have been the intention of Dr. James, in his very voluminous, and now expensive work; but we ought only to judge of an author's conduct by the plan which he has himself proposed. He who publishes a familiar introduction, is not to be blamed because he has not examined a science in all its branches.

On comparing the two editions we find numerous additions, particularly in the latter parts, which were rather too hastily closed, probably on account of the work having been published in numbers. The diseases of warm climates, and the surgical parts, are considered with more attention than before, chiefly, we suppose, to assist naval and army surgeons: it is absolutely necessary that their library be not very voluminous. We perceive also many improvements in that branch of natural history



tory connected with the materia medica; but as this subject is continually increasing under the hands of the compiler, we would still recommend it to the attention of our author.

The pharmaceutical chemistry seems also to have been examined with increased attention; and the only deficiency in this part, at present, appears to be the omission of some terms of art employed by the ancient pharmaceutist. But this is of no great consequence, except to the reader of ancient systems, and he frequently finds the explanation near the difficulty; the deficiency is also lessened, since these old authors have been less read.

We are much pleased with the author's attention to Dr. Cullen's system, which will soon be generally followed. Except in a few instances, he has given the names from the professor's synopsis, and liberally borrowed from the First Lines. In these respects his work is materially improved.

Several new plates are also added, and a copious index of common names, referring to those words where the subject is treated of. In short, the improvements are so numerous, that we have no hesitation in recommending the work, as an useful and instructive companion.

*An Account of the late Epidemic Ague, as it appeared in the Neighbourhood of Bridgnorth, in Shropshire, in 1784. By William Coley, Surgeon. 8vo. 1s. Robinson.*

Mr. Coley seems to be an intelligent and judicious practitioner; but there is little novelty in his work. It was generally known, that irregular intermittents were brought to a regular form by laxatives, where there were large accumulations of bile in the intestines; and this was usually the case when wet warm weather succeeded a continued drought. The theory is that of Dr. Cullen, and the practice is simple and effective. Indeed the only objection we have to the author is, that he should consider this mode of conduct as new, or to require a particular publication.

*A Dissertation on the Theory and Cure of the Cataract. By Jonathan Wathen, Surgeon. 8vo. 3s. sewed. Cadell.*

As we have more than once given our opinion in favour of extracting a cataract, in opposition to depressing it, we must necessarily approve of the intention of this work. It is executed also with judgment and skill; and the author's method of performing the operation will probably be successful. Yet we wish it had been more simple; and we strongly suspect that the extraction might be properly made without so large a wound. We do not however mean to object to the operation as it is here described; because we know that neither of these remarks are to be put in competition with the general success which seems to have attended Mr. Wathen's method, as an improvement on that of Daviel. We shall therefore leave it, as usual, to be examined by experience.

## MISCELLANEOUS.

*Letters addressed to Mrs. Bellamy, occasioned by her Apology. By Edward Willett. 1s. 6d. Robinson.*

Mr. Willett, in these Letters, defends himself from the accusations brought against him by Mrs. Bellamy, in her fifth Volume, with great reason, and some humour. The description of the lady in some situations, and her letters in others, leave impressions very different from those produced by her Apology; but, as no suspicion of stain seems now to rest on the character of the present author, we shall only remark, that we seem to have conversed with this representative of an eastern princess at an humble distance, with the assistance of an interpreter.

*Advice to the Officers of the British Navy, 8vo. 2s. 6d. Flexney.*

Whether the adviser of the naval officers is the same who first addressed himself to those of the army, or whether an inferior author has assumed the pen, we know not. Perhaps much of the pleasure derived from the first performance, was from the comparative novelty of the plan; but its blush is temporary, and this kind of satire, from frequent repetition, loses its relish. We have therefore no reason to suppose, from the inferiority only, that this work is the production of another author. The advice is directed to the different naval officers; and those who are conversant in the annals of the last war, a war which seemed to disgrace us, because we were not decidedly superior, and eminently successful, will readily perceive to whom the stigma is directed. For our own parts, we are satiated with this kind of entertainment, and our readers will probably be of the same opinion. Yet we cannot dismiss our author without a wish that, after the various satires which have been directed against the officers in each department, some diligent and impartial enquirer would endeavour to distribute equal justice to the many examples of spirit and judgment, the most enterprising valour, and active humanity, which have occurred in the same period. These would have been received with avidity, and decorated with their proper fame, in a country where party is not so often eager to detract, and where former uninterrupted success had not blinded the eyes of reason to the necessary uncertainty of events of war.

*Appendix to the Thoughts on executive Justice. Small 8vo. 1s. Doddsley.*

We reviewed the little work, to which this well-written Appendix is now added, with great care, in page 319. It was mentioned by Baron Ferryn, in his charge to the grand jury of Surry, as of a sanguinary tendency, 'making our laws like those of Draco, which were, from their severity, said to be written in blood.' Our account of it was very different; and the

the Baron does not seem to have attended to the scope and meaning of the tract, with his usual accuracy, temper, and coolness. This Appendix is therefore a liberal, candid, judicious defence of the Thoughts from the imputation mentioned; and gives the most favourable idea both of the head and heart of the author.

*The Magistrate's Assistant; or, a Summary of those Laws, which immediately respect the Conduct of a Justice of the Peace: to the end of the Fifteenth Parliament of Great Britain. By a Country Magistrate. 8vo. 7s. Gardner.*

Every man who contributes to the preservation of that peace which is the greatest blessing of human society, deserves the thanks of the public. It is generally known, that Europe does not afford a more useful office than that of an English justice of the peace: lord Coke affirms, that the whole Christian world hath not the like, if it be duly executed. His powers on the one hand, and limitations on the other, enable him to do great good, with very little opportunity of doing harm. It must be owned, the office falls sometimes into improper hands: but this is more or less the case in all offices of trust. There are in the commission for that county, whose magistrates are too generally, and often very injuriously, censured, many able and upright men, who would be an ornament to any commission in the kingdom; and we have reason to hope that new appointments will render that commission even more respectable than it is at present.

The design of this publication is to reduce the practice of a magistrate to as short and plain a compendium as possible, without omitting any thing that is necessary. The great object of the editor is to supply such a manual for practice, as shall encourage country gentlemen to qualify themselves for the execution of an office in which they may do great service to their country. There are no difficulties to terrify when the practice of a magistrate is reduced to so small a compass. The marginal titles are put all together in a table or index; so that any article in the book may be referred to, and a question answered, almost upon the first inspection: and the work is made farther useful, by a large collection of forms and precedents of warrants, &c. The editor however does not pretend that his book is sufficient of itself. It does not admit of distinction of cases, which are frequently wanted; he therefore recommends and refers to larger works, particularly to *Dr. Burn*, whose method he hath generally adopted, and than which indeed no better could have been followed.

We are far from thinking that a justice of the peace is the only person to whom this work will be of use. Every gentleman's education or curiosity leads him to enquire by what laws and instruments the peace and good order of society are preserved in his own country.

*The*

*The Farmer's Magazine.* 5 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 1s. in Boards. Dilly.

This work, originally published in monthly numbers, consists of practical essays, and remarks on the different branches of husbandry; to which is added a miscellaneous collection of articles both in prose and verse. How far a work, executed on such a plan, is adapted to the taste of the farmer, we must leave to his own determination.

*Drill Husbandry perfected.* By the Rev. James Cooke, M. A. S. A. 12mo. 1s. Murray.

The design of this pamphlet is to recommend a drill plough. We are informed that the price of the machine is sixteen guineas; a sum which induces us to conclude that it is of complicated construction.

## C O R R E S P O N D E N C E.

WE have been generally influenced by the considerations which A B mentions, and it shall be always our endeavour to avoid the inconveniencies, pointed out in his letter, even though they seem to us a little exaggerated.

OUR correspondent, whose signature is X, Y, Z, may be assured that the improvement he mentions has been some time in contemplation, and is now actually in forwardness. It would have given us much pleasure to have enlarged on lord Monboddo's work; but the public found it already too long, and this sagacious monitor of the Reviewers.

‘ Aurem  
Vellit & admonuit.’

OUR ‘ Well-wisher,’ who was afraid that our ‘ antipathy to air-balloons’ might have rendered our reviewing Mr. Cavallo's work ‘ irksome and inconvenient,’ will, we hope, find this article not so partial as he expected it would have been. We freely publish our opinions, but are not unwilling to give merit its proper due, even when abilities seem to be more clearly misapplied than in the present instance.

WE have not yet been able to meet with Mr. Chapple's edition of Risdon's Survey of Devonshire. We suspect it has not been advertised; but our obliging correspondent may be assured, that every attention shall be paid to his remarks.



# I N D E X.

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